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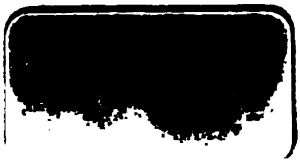

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THE

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OR

LITERARY JOURNAL,

ENLARGED:

From SEPTEMBER to DECEMBER, *inclusive.*

M, DCCC, IV.

With an APPENDIX.

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" Malicious Censure I regard not; ingenuous, I honor." SELDEN.

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ERRATA in Volume XLV.

Page 58. l. 10. from bott. put a comma after '*es*.'
91. l. 7. Ditto, dele '*du*.'
99. l. 15. for '*caritatis*,' read *caritates*.
106. l. last, put a comma after '*vice*,' and take it away from '*like*.'
140. l. 12. from bott. for '9 Nov. 1794,' read 29 Nov. 1774.
199. l. 1. of Note, dele the *s* in '*errarse*.'
259. l. 4. from bott. for '*destroyed*,' read *destroy*.
378. l. 26. dele '*spurious*.'
409. l. 8. for '*perlanti*,' read *pertanto*; and l. 9. for '*tuto*,' read *tutto*.
430. l. 8. from bott. insert *on* before '*the origin*.'

See also
pp. 469, 484, 487, 499,

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THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For SEPTEMBER, 1804.

ART. I. *An Account of Travels into the Interior of Southern Africa.* In which is considered, the Importance of the Cape of Good Hope to the different European Powers, as a Naval and Military Station, as a point of Security to our Indian Trade and Settlements during a War, and as a territorial Acquisition and Commercial Emporium in Time of Peace: with a statistical Sketch of the whole Colony; compiled from authentic Documents. By John Barrow, Esq. late Secretary to the Earl of Macartney, Auditor-General of public Accounts at the Cape of Good Hope, and Secretary to Lieutenant-General Francis Dundas during his Government there. Volume the Second. Illustrated with several Engravings. 4to. pp. 452. 1l. 15s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1804.

THE commendation which we formerly bestowed on the author of this work, in reviewing his first volume *, for the variety and extent of his information, and for the pleasant mode in which it was communicated, has been ratified by the opinion of the literary world. It seems to us, however, on the present occasion, that Mr. Barrow has been too conscious of the rank which he holds in general estimation; since he has taken liberties which would not have been hazarded by a writer who was distrustful of his abilities, and who was appearing for the first time before the formidable tribunal of the public. He treats it, indeed, with so little respect, that he tells us in the outset that this volume, consisting of 452 pages, was composed in four months; and the knowlege of this cause did not allay the vexation and weariness which we repeatedly felt, from the repetitions and the diffuseness which very essentially diminish the value of this additional performance.

The chief motive for this publication originated in a wish to afford precise and ample grounds for the determination of a question, even now agitated, whether the possession of the Cape of Good Hope is important to the interests of the British

* See Rev. Vol. xxxv. N. S. p. 337.

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empire; and since the documents now before us prove, by so evident a preponderance of argument, the great utility of that colony to our interests, we cannot but regret that they did not appear before that settlement passed out of our hands. The fate of war, however, may again subject it to our power; and, in a second negotiation, it may be considered as equally valuable with Malta or Trinidad.

The nature of our contest with France, without disjointing parties, has united all individuals in a zealous and vigorous preparation for resistance against the common enemy. No one indeed can view its large and day-light robberies, or its foul and mid-night murders, without abhorrence! but, as the sentiment of abhorrence is so general, this author might have been excused if he had suppressed it; if he had been contented merely to point out the road for political wisdom to pursue, calmly and without passion; and if he had taught us how 'France and Frenchmen may be kept in awe,' without any sarcastic remarks on Gallic perfidy or Consular despotism.

Mr. Barrow confirms the maxim which is now very generally believed, that no circumstances ever estrange a Frenchman from his country: that to serve it, whether under a king, or directors, or consuls, or an emperor, he unremittingly uses his eyes and his ears; and that to promote its aggrandizement, he will forget the dictates of honor and the duties of gratitude.

'Hence we find, (says Mr. B.) in every part of the world, Frenchmen labouring for the interests of their nation, in the various characters of ambassadors to the court, missionaries for propagating the Christian religion, commissaries of commerce, emissaries of a subordinate rank, and voluntary adventurers. A Frenchman, travelling in foreign countries, generally combines national with individual views. Since the late revolution they have been dispersed, like the Jews, over the whole world; but their dispersion is yet too recent to have obliterated the *amor patriæ* which, next to that of the ties of blood, clings, perhaps, closest to the heart. To their usual propensity for intrigue at foreign courts, and their national enmity against England, the emigrants have now the additional spur of doing something that may recommend them to the notice of their country.'

The author then adverts to the intrigues of the French in India, China, &c.; which we see no reason to question, but which are here presented without proof.

Mr. B. produces abundant testimony of the paucity and imperfection of our knowlege respecting the Cape at the time of its capture by us. Not a survey of one of the bays could be implicitly adopted: the direction and distance of Graaf Reynet was unknown: at first it was said that the three country districts could

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could raise a militia of cavalry of nearly 20,000 men; whereas in the whole settlement, men, women, and children, white inhabitants, do not much exceed that number; and wheat was supposed to be produced in such abundance, that a cargo out of the captured store was sent to England, and the following year was witness to a famine. Geographical errors equally glaring are also stated. Sparrmann, in one instance, makes an error in latitude of between two and three hundred miles: the defective map of Sparrmann was republished by Paterson; and in a partial map of the colony by De la Rochette, *four and twenty* rivers are made to flow in directions opposite to their real courses. In speaking of M. Le Vaillant, Mr. B. says:

'With regard to the last-mentioned gentleman, I should not have noticed his map had he not endeavoured to impress the world with an idea of the great pains that were taken in collecting the materials, and of the assistance he afterwards received, and the attention that was bestowed, in putting them together. And in order to add force, as he supposes, to the value of his observations, with a pretended zeal for the cause of humanity (pretended because he knew that every line in his chart was false), he breaks out into the following apostrophe: —"Had my voyage been productive of no other good than that of *preventing a single shipwreck*, I should have applauded myself during my whole life for undertaking it!" The fact is, he has done little more, in the eastern part of his map, than copy from Sparrmann; and the whole to the northward of Saint Helena Bay is a work of fancy. Two instances will be sufficient to shew how very little he is to be trusted. He places Camdeboo, and the beginning of the Snowy Mountains, in the latitude of about 28° south, instead of 32° 15′ south, an error of more than 290 English miles! And he makes the Orange River *descend* from the northward, nearly parallel to the coast, which, in fact, takes its rise near the eastern coast, and *ascends* towards the north-west. Messrs. Truter and Somerville, who two years ago penetrated farther into the interior of Southern Africa than any Europeans had ever done before, calculated that they crossed this river in about 29° 0′ south, and between 23° and 24° east of Greenwich. I skirted its banks from 29°40′ to 30° 15′ south, and between the longitudes of 25° 45′ and 26° 30′ east, which shews, as I said before, that its course is north-westerly. *Monsieur Le Vaillant* cannot be offended at my pointing out his mistakes, as he himself has observed, that "a traveller ought to conceal nothing that may lead to error in the sciences." Besides, I feel myself called upon to answer a charge, preferred against me by *Monsieur Grandpré*, the translator of my former volume, that I have attempted to invalidate the truth of *Monsieur Le Vaillant*'s work, *because it was from the pen of a Frenchman.* I can very seriously assure *Monsieur Grandpré*, that he is mistaken; that I consider the work of *Monsieur Le Vaillant* as replete with valuable matter, and ingenious observations; but they are so jumbled together with fiction and romance, that none but those who have followed his steps can pretend to separate the one from the other.'

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If, in some future period, we resolve on having possession of the Cape, it will not be on account of the largeness and the value of its productions. On these grounds, it certainly is not very desirable; and this author, a *strong Cape-man*, states its physical disadvantages with great appearance of impartiality. The soil, in some seasons, labours excessively with drought: but this evil might, as Mr. B. suggests, be in some degree remedied by planting trees, and inclosing the country. The want of springs, however, is too severely felt; and this circumstance renders the best Bay in the colony useless for shipping. The reason assigned by the author for this scarcity of springs appears to us very ingenious and just, and it also points out the plan to be adopted in procuring water:

'All the continued chains of mountains in Southern Africa are composed of sandstone resting upon a base of granite. This granite base is sometimes elevated considerably above the general surface of the country, and sometimes its upper part is sunk as far beneath it. In situations where the former happens to be the case, numerous springs are sure to be found, as in the instance of Table Mountain, where, on every side, copious streams of pure limpid water, filtered through the immense mass of superincumbent sandstone, glide over the impenetrable surface of granite, furnishing an ample supply to the whole town, the gardens, and the adjacent farms. But in all those places where the sandstone continues to descend below the surface, and the upper part of the granite base is sunk beneath the general level of the country, the springs that make their appearance are few and scanty.

'The reasoning that suggests itself on these facts will lead to the following conclusion:—that the cisterns or cavities in the sandstone mountains, being corroded and fretted away, in the lapse of ages, to a greater depth than the openings or conduits which might, perhaps, at one time have given their waters vent, the springs can no longer find their way upon the surface, but, oozing imperceptibly between the granite and the sandstone, below the general level of the country, glide in subterraneous streams to the sea.

'I am the more inclined to this opinion from the experience of several facts. When Admiral Sir Roger Curtis directed a space of ground, between the Admiralty-house and the shore of Table Bay, to be inclosed as a naval yard, the workmen met with great impediment from the copious springs of pure fresh water that rushed out of the holes, which they found necessary to sink in the sand, for receiving the upright posts. It is a well known fact, that on almost every part of the isthmus that connects the mountainous peninsula of the Cape to the continent, fresh water may be procured at the depth of ten or twelve feet below the sandy surface. Even in the side of the Tyger Hills, at an elevation of twenty feet, at least, above the general surface of the isthmus, when the workmen were driving a level in search of coal, a copious stream of water was collected within it in the month of February, which is the very dryest season of the year. And on

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boring, for the same purpose, on Wynberg, they came to a rill of water at the depth of twenty feet below the surface.'

The second chapter, the only one of this volume which contains *narrative*, is intitled *a military expedition to the Kaffer country*. The detail is interesting, but not very important. It contains proofs, however, if proofs were wanting, of the indolence, ignorance, and diabolical barbarity of the Boors. They are indecent, ferocious, unwieldy, disgusting in outward form and inward mind; and the many recorded instances of their brutality continually excite in us and cherish the hope, that the Cape may be found beneficial to the interests of this country, that policy may be on the same side with humanity, and that the Hottentot may be delivered from his Dutch master. In fact, the Hottentots would assist us in the defence of the colony. Sir James Craig found that they made excellent soldiers, tolerably clean, neither roving nor drunken; and though their collective courage was not put to a trial, individually they are not deficient in that quality. A Dutch Boor is indeed bolder than the Hottentot, but only when the former has a gun, and the latter is unarmed.

To the great honor of our people while at the Cape, they protected the Hottentots; who, on every account, seem to be the best production in the form and features of men, of which the colony can boast. Something like justice was administered; murder (for a Boor feels not much compunction in murdering a Hottentot) was repressed; and the cruelty displayed by a Boor was punished, to his no small astonishment and indignation. We select a passage on this subject, which will not be read without emotion:

'The next house we halted at upon the road presented us with a still more horrid instance of brutality. We observed a fine Hottentot boy, about eight years of age, sitting at the corner of the house, with a pair of iron rings clenched upon his legs, of the weight of ten or twelve pounds; and they had remained in one situation for such a length of time, that they appeared to be sunk into the leg, the muscle being tumefied both above and below the rings. The poor creature was so benumbed and oppressed with the weight, that being unable to walk with ease, he crawled on the ground. It appeared, on inquiry, that they had been rivetted to his legs more than ten months ago. What was to be done in a case of such wanton and deliberate cruelty? It was scarcely in human nature to behold an innocent boy for ever maimed in so barbarous a manner; and at the same time to look upon the cold blooded perpetrator without feeling a sentiment of horror mingled with exasperation,—a sentiment that seemed to say it would serve the cause of humanity to rid the world of such a monster. The fellow shrunk from the inquiries of the indignant General; he had nothing to allege against him but that he had always been a worthless boy; he had lost him so many sheep; he had slept when he ought to

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watch the cattle, and such like frivolous charges of a negative kind; the amount of which, if true, only proved that his own interest had sometimes been neglected by this child.

'Determined to make an example of the author of such unparalleled brutality, the General ordered him instantly to yoke his oxen to his waggon, and, placing the boy by his side, to drive directly to head-quarters. Here he gave orders to the farrier of the 8th regiment of Light Dragoons, to strike off the irons from the boy, an operation that required great nicety and attention, and to clench them as tight as he could on the legs of his master, who roared and bellowed in a most violent manner, to the inexpressible satisfaction of the by-standers, and, above all, to that of the little sufferer just relieved from torment. For the whole of the first night his lamentations were incessant; with a Stentorian voice a thousand times he vociferated, "*Myn God! is dat een maniere om Christian mensch te handelen!*" "My God! is this a way to treat Christians!" His, however, were not the agonies of bodily pain, but the bursts of rage and resentment on being put on a level with one, as they call them, of the *Zwarte Natie*, between whom and the *Christian Mensch* they conceive the difference to be fully as great as between themselves and their cattle, and whom, indeed, they most commonly honour with the appellation of *Zwarte Vee*, black cattle. Having roared for three days and as many nights, at first to the great amusement, but afterwards, to the no less annoyance, of the whole camp, he was suffered to go about his business on paying a heavy penalty in money for the use of the boy, whom he had abused in so shameful a manner.'

Along the banks of the Sunday-River, the British party fell in with a great number of Kaffers, under the command of a chief called Congo, flying from the territories and power of the Kaffer king Gaika. This retreating party having encroached on the limits of the colony, an interview with the chief was requested, in order to urge him to quit the territory which (in some way or another,) is made to belong to Europeans; and the Kaffer chief, at the head of thirty of his people, each armed with a hassagay or spear, approached the British troops:

'On being told how necessary it was, for the sake of preserving tranquillity, that he should quit his present station among the boors, he replied, with great firmness, that the ground he then stood upon was his own by inheritance, for that his father had been cheated out of it by a Dutch Landrost of Graaf Reynet; that, however, being desirous of remaining in friendship with the English, he would remove eastward in the course of three days; but that it was impossible for him to cross the Great Fish River, as there was a deadly hatred, or, as he expressed it, *there was blood between Gaika and himself*; and that Gaika was then much too powerful for him.

'The decided tone in which he spoke, at the head of his small party, when surrounded by British troops; his prepossessing countenance, and tall muscular figure, could not fail to excite a strong interest in his favour. An open and manly deportment, free from suspi-

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suspicion, fear, or embarrassment, seems to characterize the Kaffer chiefs. Though extremely good-humoured, benevolent, and hospitable, they are neither so pliant nor so passive as the Hottentot. The poorer sort are sometimes led to seek for service among the boors, and engage themselves for so many moons in consideration of so many head of cattle; and they never suffer themselves to be duped out of their hire like the easy Hottentots. The conversation with Congo ended by recommending him to withdraw his people and their cattle from the banks of the Sunday-River, to which he gave a kind of reluctant assent.

'The whole of the party that accompanied this chief were tall, upright, and well made men; affording a clear proof that animal food is by no means necessary to promote the growth of the human species; or to add strength of fibre to the muscular parts of the body.'

Instigated by certain rebellious boors, the brave Kaffers ventured on the rash attempt of attacking the British camp under General Vandeleur: but they were repulsed with loss. It is remarkable that, after the conflict had continued some time, the Kaffers, finding their missile weapons of no use, broke their hassagays, and rushed forwards to the combat with the iron part only in their hands.

The gloom and the sorrow, which prevailed on the evacuation of the Cape by our people, strongly testified their kind and just conduct. Of the troops who, after their departure, took possession of the Cape, half the officers were Frenchmen; and probably their conduct will not steal the affections of the colonists from the British: for difference of latitude will not cause much alteration in the moral conduct of a Frenchman, who will be rapacious whether at Hanover or at Cape Town. We apprehend, however, that these French officers will make the second capture much more difficult to us than we found the first.

Chapter III. treats on the importance of the Cape of Good Hope, considered as a military station. On this point, there have been and still are many various opinions. It is something, in the way of argument, that the ministry of this country, who have recourse to the best documents, have esteemed this post important; and it has been styled the Defence of the East Indies: but, on the other hand, the East India Directors, whose interest ought to make them judge rightly, hold it cheap;—of late, they have not even used it as a half-way house, and have ordered their ships not to touch at it. An English crew, Mr. Barrow observes, can bear the whole voyage without a halt: but, when the crew is composed of Lascars, who require fresh provisions, it is almost indispensably necessary for their health to stop at the Cape. It can

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scarcely be denied that this settlement, in the possession of our enemies, would afford them the means of greatly annoying our trade; and in former wars, the celebrated Suffrein went thither after his actions, to refit and revictual his ships. The French do not now seem ignorant of its consequence; and Mr. Barrow detects, in the late negotiation, a great but suppressed solicitude on their part to have the Cape restored: they said very little about it, indeed, and appeared to consider it as of trivial moment: but this was political finesse and adroitness; and they blustered about other things, and other places, for which in reality they cared little. If we now look to the composition of the garrison, we must grant that the Cape was really ceded to France.

According to Mr. B.'s account, this station is admirably fitted to season troops; since it is very healthy, provisions are plentiful, and a few months' residence there enables soldiers to bear the Indian climate extremely well. Very convenient drafts were recently made from our force at the Cape, to Egypt and India; and the expedition under Sir Home Popham is said not to have lost a man by sickness.

Though we do not precisely understand Mr. Barrow's calculations, which state that the English government made large savings by issuing paper money, and by deducting, on the score of rations, from the pay of the soldiers, yet the Cape is clearly the cheapest place, at present known, for merely subsisting a military force. The price of butcher's meat is two-pence per pound, bread a penny, and a pint of sound wine may be bought for three pence. Mr. B. thinks that, from the expence of the colony, the pay of the garrison, which must subsist somewhere, ought to be deducted: but this is not an exact statement: had we retained possession of the Cape, the garrison (6000 or 7000 men) must have been a created force, additional to our present, and consequently the whole cost of maintaining it would have been a charge on government. The expence of a garrison of 5000 men, from an average of seven years, is 255,597*l.* After having made the above gratuitous deduction for the maintenance of the garrison, Mr. Barrow says:

'There is little reason, therefore, in reality, for considering the Cape in the light of an expensive settlement. In fact, the sums of money, that have been expended there, dwindle into nothing upon a comparison with some of the West India Islands, whose importance are a feather when weighed against that of the Cape of Good Hope. Viewing it only as a point of security to our Indian possessions, and as a nursery for maturing raw recruits into complete soldiers, the question of expence falls to the ground. Of the several millions

millions that are annually raised for the support of government at home, and its dependencies abroad, a small fraction of one of these millions may surely be allowed for the maintenance of a station whose advantages are incalculable.

'But the article of expence, trifling even in war, could be no object whatsoever in time of peace. The fortifications, which were in the most ruinous condition when the place was taken, being finished in a complete manner, would require no further expence than that of merely keeping the works in repair, which might amount, perhaps, to an annual sum of five thousand pounds. The contingencies and extraordinaries of the army could not, at the utmost, amount to twenty thousand pounds; so that twenty five or thirty thousand pounds would be the extent of the contingent and extraordinary expences of the Cape in time of peace; a sum that, by proper management, and a prudent application of the revenues of the colony, might easily be defrayed out of the public treasury there. and leave a surplus adequate to all the demands of the civil department, together with the necessary repairs of public works and buildings.'

The strength of the Cape is particularly described. There are but few points which it is necessary to defend: but, as to a landing, that may always be effected. Mr. B. thinks that an army of 10,000 men could not prevent it.

Chapter ivth considers the Cape of Good Hope as a naval station.—A fleet at this port may very cheaply be provided with beef, wine, and spirits. It is a convenient place for ships in distress; almost necessary as a half-way-house, for ships manned with Lascars, or for transports carrying out raw soldiers to the East Indies; and it enabled our fleet to clear the Indian Sea of privateers. As for its geographical advantages, let us attend to Mr. Barrow:

'The geographical position of the Cape of Good Hope throws a vast weight into the scale of its importance to England. Its happy situation, with regard to climate, and the productions of the soil, stamp its value as a depositary of troops and seamen; and its relative position on the globe enhances that value by the ready communication it commands with almost every part of the world. We have seen with what expedition more than two thousand troops were thrown from hence into India, to the very walls of Seringapatam; and, on another occasion, twelve hundred effective men into Egypt. With equal facility and dispatch could the same, or a greater, number have been conveyed to the east coast of North America, the West India islands, or the west coast of South America. At a month's notice, the whole coast of Brazil could be lined with cruizers from the Cape. The whole eastern coast of Africa, and the various islands contiguous to it, are at the mercy of the power who holds the Cape; and the large island of Madagascar may be approached in ten or twelve days, those of France and Bourbon in much less than a month, the Red Sea in five or six weeks, and the coasts of Malabar and Coromandel in seven or eight weeks. These passages will certainly

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tainly depend much on the season of the year in which they are made, but when this is properly chosen, the different places may be arrived at within the periods here mentioned.

'If, at any time, troops might be wanted in the West Indies, the homeward-bound East Indiamen might be employed to transport them thither from the Cape without retarding their passage more than sixteen or eighteen days, as the common practice of crossing the line is now as far to the westward as 26° west longitude. Detachments of the Hottentot corps would be well calculated for service in the West India islands. Should, at any future period, the French resume their projects on India by the Red Sea (which they will certainly not fail to do whenever an opportunity presents itself), in three months from the time it was first known in England, a force from the Cape might be in possession of the straits of Babelmandel, and, by thus anticipating, completely frustrate their designs, which, with the Cape in their possession, or in that of the Dutch, they might easily accomplish.'

Mr. B. again and again urges (what, we think, cannot occasion much doubt) the annoyance which our trade would experience if the Cape, together with the Isles of France and Bourbon, were in the hands of the enemy. He admits, with Lord Macartney, that Ceylon, for its excellent harbour of Trincomalée, is of more value than the Cape: but he quotes an opinion of that noble Lord, to shew that the Cape would be a powerful instrument in the hands of France for the recovery of Ceylon.

Chapter v. discusses the importance of the Cape of Good Hope, considered in a commercial point of view, and as a depôt for the Southern Whale Fishery. With some speculation not very interesting, this chapter contains much useful information respecting the productions of the colony. The value of these productions, without alteration, will never tempt our avarice; since, as the author remarks:

'The obvious conclusion to be drawn from the view now taken of the amount of exports in colonial produce is, that the Cape of Good Hope, in its present condition, is of very little importance to any nation, considered as to the articles of commerce it supplies for exportation to foreign markets. The surplus produce, beyond the supply of its own inhabitants, a garrison, and navy of eight or ten thousand men, and the refreshments furnished to ships trading and casually calling there, is so trifling as to merit no consideration. But that, by a new system of things, is susceptible of great improvement; and the supply of the most important articles, of being extended to an almost indefinite amount.'

Mr. Barrow then states the imports, and shews that five-sixths of the trade of the Cape of Good Hope were occasioned by the consumption of the garrison and navy; and consequently, except

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except a considerable garrison be stationed there, or some other channel be opened, the colonists, who have increased their capital, will be in worse circumstances than they were before the capture.

In the last chapter, which includes a topographical and statistical account of the Cape, we are surprised to find so small a population given to the colony; viz. 60,000 persons only in 120,000 square miles. This is a most striking instance of bad policy and internal mis-management, since food is in abundance: in *too great* abundance, according to the author, because by nurturing indolence it checks the desire of improvement.

In order to augment the riches of the colony, Mr. B. proposes to introduce ten thousand Chinese: not to toil as slaves, but to be endowed with small portions of land. Such labourers, consequently, would feel an interest in the improvement of their property; and the true, genuine, beneficial spirit of industry would be excited.

A second plan, more easily carried into execution, and more on a level with the common notions of society, is to inclose many of the Cape lands, and to plant them: by these means, moisture would not be so easily dissipated as it is at present, and the violent scorching of the soil would in some degree be prevented.

The inhabitants of the Cape are extremely fond of buying and selling; and this disposition is favourable to the revenue, since a tax of 5 per cent. is imposed on all sales. They are moreover excessively litigious; and justice, taking the colony throughout, is most imperfectly administered. The clergy are well maintained, and are held in respect; they are paid by government, not by any tax or tythe.

In the beginning of the article, we expressed our general opinion of this production, and little more is requisite to be added. It abounds in information, various and extensive; and we have no grounds for doubting its accuracy: but this information ought to have been compressed within narrower limits. We are not vociferous for imaginary perfection: but, according to the author's own confession, he has bestowed very little time on putting his work into proper order; and in truth it is at present somewhat like his Boor of the Cape, fat and unwieldy.

Mr. Barrow has just published another volume, intitled *Travels in China*; whither also he accompanied Lord Macartney. We shall pay due attention to it.

R.W.

ART.

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ART. II. *Poems,* from the Portuguese of Luis de Camoens: with Remarks on his Life and Writings, Notes, &c. &c. By Lord Viscount Strangford. Crown 8vo. pp. 160. 7 s. Boards. Carpenter. 1804.

AMONG the delicate fruit with which we are sometimes refreshed in our literary walks, we cannot hesitate to class these amatory effusions of Camoens, or rather of his pretended translator. A young nobleman of the present day, who loves to beguile his more serious labours in cultivating the graces of the Attic muse, here affords a rare and flattering presage of future eminence. This pleasing consideration, and the classical ease and delicacy which characterize the present volume, induce us to dwell on it rather more minutely than its limited size may seem to require.

The biographical remarks are chiefly supplementary to those of Mickle, the elegant but free translator of the Lusiad. They contain some new anecdotes, conveyed in neat and elegant language, and are sprinkled with sentiments which accord with the finest feelings of the heart. Our readers will pardon the insertion of a few paragraphs:

'The latter years of CAMOENS present a mournful picture, not merely of individual calamity, but of national ingratitude. He whose best years had been devoted to the service of his country, he, who had taught her literary fame to rival the proudest efforts of Italy itself, and who seemed born to revive the remembrance of ancient gentility and Lusian heroism, was compelled in age to wander through the streets, a wretched dependent on casual contribution. One friend alone remained to smooth his downward path and guide his steps to the grave with gentleness and consolation. It was Antonio, his slave, a native of Java, who had accompanied CAMOENS to Europe, after having rescued him from the waves, when shipwrecked at the mouth of the Mecon. This faithful attendant was wont to seek alms throughout Lisbon, and at night shared the produce of the day with his poor and broken-hearted master *. Blessed, for ever blessed, be the memory of this amiable Indian! But his friendship was employed in vain: CAMOENS sank beneath the pressure of penury and disease, and died in an alms-house † early in the year 1579. He was buried in the church of Saint Anne of the Franciscans. Over his grave, Goncalo Coutinho placed the following inscription ‡, which, for comprehensive

'* *Faria y Sousa.* § XXIX.'

'† The place of his death is differently mentioned by *Manoel de Faria.* According to that commentator, he died in his own miserable hovel, close to the church in which he was interred.'

'‡ *Sousa.* Vid. §. Some years afterwards, Don Goncalves Camera caused a long and pompous epitaph to be engraved on the same tomb. But this posthumous panegyric only added deeper disgrace to the facts recorded in the former inscription.'

simplicity,

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simplicity, the translator ventures to prefer to almost every production of a similar kind:

HERE LIES LUIS DE CAMOENS:
HE EXCELLED ALL THE POETS OF HIS TIME.
HE LIVED POOR AND MISERABLE;
AND HE DIED SO.
MDLXXIX.

'It has been justly observed, * that the fate of CAMOENS, considered in a political view, bears an intimate connection with that of his country. The same degradation of national sentiment, which suffered such a man to become a beggar and an outcast, not long afterwards plunged Portugal into the lowest disgrace, and reduced her to the abject state of a conquered province. So true it is, that the decline of public spirit in matters of taste is a certain indication of political decay †.

'The character of CAMOENS may be inferred from his writings. An open and undisguised contempt of every thing base and sordid, whatevever were the rank or power of its possessor, formed one of its principal features. We have already seen how much the worldly interest of our poet was injured by this honourable audacity of soul. Those who condemn it must be ignorant that the exercise of this feeling produces a more enviable delight than any which fortune can ever bestow. The poor man is not always poor!

'But gallantry was the leading trait in the disposition of CAMOENS. His amours were various and successful. Woman was to him as a ministering angel, and for the little joy which he tasted in life, he was indebted to her. The magic of female charms forms his favourite theme, and while he paints the allurements of the sex with the glowing pencil of an enthusiast, he seems transported into that heaven which he describes. Nor did this passion ever desert him; even in his last days, he feelingly regretted the raptures of youth, and lingered with delight on the remembrances of love. A cavalier named Ruy de Camera ‡, having called upon our author to finish a poetical version of the seven penitential psalms, raising his head from his miserable pallet, and pointing to his faithful slave, he exclaimed, "Alas, when I was a poet, I was young, and happy and *blest with the love of ladies*, but now I am a forelorn deserted wretch:—See—there stands my poor Antonio, vainly supplicating *four pence* to purchase a little coals—I have them not to give him!" The cavalier, as Sousa quaintly relates, closed his heart and his purse, and quitted the room. Such were the grandees of Portugal!'

'* *Mickle.* Life of Camoens.'

'† Of this opinion was Camoens himself. In a letter to Don Francisco de Almeyda, written a few days before his death, he has these prophetic expressions: "*Veran todos que fuy tan aficionado a mi patria, que no solo bolví para morir en ella, mas para morir con ella!*"—"The world shall witness how dearly I have loved my country. I have returned, not merely to die in her bosom, but to die with her!" *Sousa.* Vid. § xxv.'

'‡ *Sousa.* Vid. § xxix.'

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We are not pleased with the noble author, when he labours to persuade us that he has really acted the part of a translator, and, in most cases, closely copied his original. In some instances, he has certainly pursued or expanded a hint furnished by the epic poet of Portugal; yet we shall not greatly err, if we regard those minor compositions as *poems* rather than *translations*, and Camoens as Viscount Strangford in disguise.—Ought such tricks of *diplomacy* to be tolerated in the literary world? We think that they should not. A little jockeyship of publication, however, cannot affect the intrinsic merit of the pieces themselves. That merit chiefly consists in a happy union of tender sentiment and simple elegant expression. Though love be the prevailing theme, and love has been celebrated since poets existed, these madrigals, canzonets, and sonnets will still bear the test of critical perusal, and will still please by their native sweetness. It is not mean praise to say of a young amatory poet, that he is more terse than Anacreon, and more delicate than *Little*. The following extracts will, we apprehend, justify the very favourable opinion which we have formed of the present collection:

'CANZON.

'When day has smil'd a soft farewell,
And night-drops bathe each shutting bell,
And shadows sail along the green,
And birds are still, and winds serene,
I wander silently.

'And while my lone step prints the dew,
Dear are the dreams that bless my view,
To Memory's eye the maid appears,
For whom have sprung my sweetest tears,
So oft, so tenderly:

'I see her, as with graceful care
She binds her braids of sunny hair;
I feel her harp's melodious thrill
Strike to my heart—and thence be still
Re-echo'd faithfully:

'I meet her mild and quiet eye,
Drink the warm spirit of her sigh,
See young Love beating in her breast,
And wish to mine it's pulses prest,
God knows how fervently!

'Such are my hours of dear delight,
And morn but makes me long for night,
And think how swift the minutes flew,
When last amongst the dropping dew,
I wander'd silently.'

'MADRIGAL.

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'MADRIGAL.

'Dear is the blush of early light
To him who ploughs the pathless deep,
When winds have rav'd throughout the night,
And roaring tempests banish'd sleep—
Dear is the dawn, which springs at last,
And shows him all his peril past.

'Dearer to me the break of day,
Which thus thy bended eye illumes;
And chasing fear and doubt away,
Scatters the night of mental glooms,
And bids my spirit hope at last,
A rich reward for peril past!'

'SONNET.

'Mondego! thou, whose waters cold and clear
Gird those green banks, where Fancy fain would stay,
Fondly to muse on that departed day
When Hope was kind, and Friendship seem'd sincere;
—Ere I had purchas'd knowledge with a tear.
—Mondego! though I bend my pilgrim way
To other shores, where other fountains stray,
And other rivers roll their proud career,
Still—nor shall time, nor grief, nor stars severe,
Nor widening distance, e'er prevail in aught
To make thee less to this sad bosom dear;
And Memory oft, by old Affection taught,
Shall lightly speed upon the plumes of thought,
To bathe amongst thy waters cold and clear!'

'STANZAS.

'I saw the virtuous man contend
With life's unnumber'd woes;
And he was poor—without a friend—
Press'd by a thousand foes.

'I saw the Passions' pliant slave
In gallant trim, and gay;
His course was Pleasure's placid wave,
His life, a summer's day.—

'And I was caught in Folly's snare,
And join'd her giddy train—
But found her soon the nurse of Care,
And Punishment, and Pain.

'There surely is some guiding pow'r
Which rightly suffers wrong—
Gives Vice to bloom it's little hour—
But Virtue, late and long!'

'CANZONET.

'Thou hast an eye of tender blue,
And thou hast locks of Daphne's hue,
And cheeks that shame the morning's break,

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And lips that might for redness make
Roses seem pale beside them;
But whether soft or sweet as they,
Lady! alas, I cannot say,
For I have never tried them.

'Yet, thus created for delight,
Lady! thou art not lovely quite,
For dost thou not this maxim know,
That Prudery is Beauty's foe,
A stain that mars a jewel!
And ev'n that woman's angel face,
Loses a portion of its grace,
If woman's heart be cruel!

'Love is a sweet and blooming boy,
Yet glowing with the blush of joy,
And (still in youth's delicious prime)
Tho' ag'd as patriarchal Time,
The withering god despises:
Lady! would'st thou for ever be
As fair, and young, and fresh as he—
Do all that Love advises!'

Lord Strangford's versification is soft and musical; and his rhymes are, for the most part, correct: but the suspension of a pause at the end of the line is sometimes so unduly prolonged, that it mars the ease and freedom which we expect in short and airy measures. Thus the second, third, and fourth lines of the Madrigal, which begins with 'Pr'ythee, Cupid,' &c. run into one another without so much as a terminating comma. In the stanzas to Night, we have three lines of the same exceptionable structure;

'For this around thy solemn fane
'Young birds I strew, that glisten
'With tears of woe
'By jealous Tithon,' &c.

Another example occurs at the beginning of the 14th sonnet:

'My best belov'd!—although unpitying skies
'And wrathful fortune sternly thus conspire
'To bid thy servant's lingering steps retire
'Far from the tempered gleam,' &c.

The epithet *southernly* is somewhat grating; and 'it shall often be warm'd by remembering thee' is one of the few lines which we should point out as prosaic.

P. 61. 'When I am *done to death* by thee,
And cold thy lover lies;'—

The

The phrase *done to death* must surely be an oversight, not to say an error of the Press.—As it stands, it gives us a culinary idea, very different from the *cold* state in which the Lover is represented to be.

We shall compensate for these strictures by copying another pleasing amatory effusion:

'CANZONET.

'*The Lady who swore by her Eyes.*

'When the girl of my heart is on perjury bent,
The sweetest of oaths hides the falsest intent,
And Suspicion, abash'd, from her company flies,
When she smiles like an angel—and swears by her eyes.

'For in them such magic, she knows, is display'd,
That a tear can convince, and a look can persuade;
And she thinks that I dare not, or cannot, refuse
To believe on their credit whate'er she may chuse.

'But I've learn'd from the painful experience of youth,
That vehement oaths never constitute truth;
And I've studied those treach'rous eyes, and I find
They are mutable signs of a mutable mind!

'Then, dear one, I'd rather, thrice rather believe
Whate'er you assert, even though to deceive,
Than that you "by your eyes" should so wickedly swear,
And sin against heaven—for heaven is there!'

'Of the *notes*,' the noble writer remarks, 'little can be said. He who comments on amatory verses undertakes but a limited office. His utmost effort is the citation of parallel passages, unless he substitute admiration for criticism; a mistake into which, of all others, a translator is most likely to fall.' Let us add that his Lordship's translations and imitations of these parallel passages are executed with singular neatness and propriety.

Among the other beauties of this classical performance, the reader of taste will not overlook the pretty and merited compliment with which Lord S. concludes his preface:

'The present writer has yet to offer his grateful acknowledgments to those whose advice and experience have aided his labours. It is with pride and pleasure that he enrols among them the names of *Percy* and of *Hayley*. To the kindness of the latter he is indebted for the assistance of many valuable books, which could not elsewhere be procured; and to the almost fatherly friendship of the learned Bishop of Dromore, his obligations have long been unbounded. It is no small honour to so young a writer, that he should be countenanced by men, who, like the good spirits in *Trissino*, sit under the shade of their own laurels, and smile encouragement on those who are labouring up the mountain over which they preside.'

The work is handsomely printed, and embellished with a head of Camoens. Muir.

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ART. III. *An Account of the Astronomical Discoveries of Kepler*: including an Historical Review of the Systems which had successively prevailed before his Time.—By Robert Small, D.D. F.R.S. Edinburgh. 8vo. pp. 370, and 11 Plates. 7s. 6d. Boards. Mawman.

THE real merit of those great men, who have given to Science and Philosophy a new existence and a new form, is known only to few. Their praises, however, loudly resound on every side; and while all, who make pretensions to acquirements in Science, speak of Galileo, Bacon, Kepler, and Newton, with enthusiasm, very few consult the original works of these celebrated authors. In books of easier access, and of more familiar aspect, we seek for sketches of their discoveries, for the summaries of doctrine, and for the results of investigation. The "bright reward" of those who "live laborious days,"—*the veneration of posterity*,—is not always the offspring of reason and feeling: we praise, because others have praised before us, and reverberate the echo of reiterated commendation.

Bacon and Newton are not yet removed into the shade, nor viewed through the medium of another's representation: we are not as yet contented with the substance and spirit of their philosophy, compressed within the limits of a journal or a magazine: since national partiality, acting on the same side with good taste and judgment, still cause their original productions to be read by their countrymen. Galileo and Kepler, however, the one preferred by his historian to Bacon, the other the illustrious precursor of Newton, are almost entirely neglected. The little which we know of them is derived from the second-hand report of others; and indolence, or want of opportunity, has hitherto induced us to subscribe to the statements of others respecting their labours and their merits.

To the generality of readers, indeed, it must be acknowleged, the original works of such authors are not most conveniently adapted. Numerous circumstances influence the style and the mode of communicating new notions and discoveries. From the prevailing ignorance of the times, it might be necessary tediously to explain and illustrate truths now commonly received; and from the current prejudices, it might be necessary to combat errors with caution or with vigour, which now would seem excessive and preposterous. The minds of the inventors, also, felt the influence of the opinions of their age, and complied with its fashion: from the frequent employment of barbarous terms, and of words without precise signification, they imperfectly and obscurely communicated their inventions; from the intentional use of terms, by which poor and beggarly notions

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notions had often been imposed on the world as notions stately and magnificent, they could not refrain from throwing an air of mystery over their discoveries; and they sought an unworthy triumph by perplexing and bewildering, when they ought simply and plainly to have instructed.

Much then is to be found in the writings of these patriarchs in science, that may be retrenched and altered; and the author who has skill and patience to pierce through light and darkness, through truth and error, and to separate them, is intitled to the thanks of the community. In such a situation, the present writer stands:—to sufficient patience for the task, we congratulate ourselves that Dr. Small added the requisite ability; and possessing the requisite ability, we must strongly applaud his patience.

Of the plan of this work, we cannot give a better account than is contained in the author's own words:

'My principal intention, in the present publication, is to give a more full and particular account of Kepler's discoveries, than any to be found in the usual systems, or the general histories of Astronomy; and to extract the account from his own investigations. These are chiefly contained in his Commentary on the Motions of Mars; and I have often regretted that a work, containing such invaluable discoveries, should not be more generally and distinctly known. This work claims attention for another reason, that it exhibited, even prior to the publication of Bacon's *Novum Organum*, a more perfect example, than perhaps ever was given, of legitimate connection between theory and experiment; of experiments suggested by theory, and of theory submitted without prejudice to the test and decision of experiments. But, in order to form a just estimate of those discoveries, nay, perhaps, a distinct conception of the investigations by which they were produced, it seemed absolutely necessary to prefix an account of the more ancient astronomical theories, and of the principal phenomena which they were contrived and supposed to explain.'

In Chapter 1, on the Principal Motions and Inequalities of the Celestial Bodies, will be found a very precise and perspicuous statement of some of the ordinary phænomena of the heavenly bodies; together with the method of computing the mean motions of the planets, &c. Since the writings of Kepler and their merits cannot be properly appreciated without a knowlege of the antient systems, Dr. Small devotes his second chapter to explain those systems, and particularly that of Ptolemy. We do not force ourselves into panegyric, when we say that this explanation is conveyed in a very masterly manner. Dr. S. clearly represents the concentric and excentric theories, and shews the alteration, (or rather complication,) which such theories received, in order that the heavenly phænomena might be reduced under their laws. He does not

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in a rough and general manner exhibit Ptolemy's system, but gives the method by which that great Astronomer found the excentricity of the equant, the equations of the centre, the semi-diameters of the epicycle, &c. He likewise points out the defects under which Ptolemy's system laboured; not defects originating in physical absurdity, or absence of simplicity and analogy, but on an inadequate explanation of phænomena; and this is the true ground for rejecting theories: since in the most perfect, something must always be left to conjecture, and much must rest on probability.—The author concludes the 2d chapter with these sensible observations:

'Notwithstanding the labour employed, and the ingenuity displayed in the formation of this system, its imperfections were so great and numerous, that it was impossible it should always continue to maintain its credit. Though the original introduction of excentric orbits by Hipparchus banished some of the ancient epicycles, and promised greater simplicity than had been attained in the ancient concentric theory, the more extensive application, which Ptolemy and his followers made of the excentric theory, rendered it at last almost as perplexed and intricate as the theory which it had displaced. Its suppositions were often dissimilar, and even inconsistent with one another; and instead of answering to the title of a system, it was an assemblage of parts connected by no general principle of union, and between which there subsisted no known mutual relations; for, though the ratio of an epicycle to its peculiar orbit might be determined, those of the orbits to one another were entirely arbitrary. In many respects it was destitute of the authority even of sense, to which it principally appealed; and, notwithstanding the pretensions of reducing the celestial phenomena to the rules of geometrical calculation, it was not uncommon to find differences of hours and days, and even of months, between the calculation and the fact; nay, it frequently happened, that the predictions, made according to its rules, entirely failed. But the objection, which seems to have struck at the credit of the Ptolemaic theory more than all its inaccuracy in representing the phenomena, was its contradiction to the supposed inviolable law of circular and uniform motion, which it was the principal object of all systems to establish and confirm. Not only did its oscillations and librations produce perpetual deviations, both from the plane and the circumference of the circle; but also the uniformity aimed at by the equant itself was purely imaginary; for it took place in an orbit where the celestial body was hardly ever found; and, by the introduction of it, a real inequality of velocity was acknowledged in the orbit, which the body actually described. The position also of the centre of the equant was regulated by no general law: for, in the theories of Venus and the superior planets, its distance from the centre of the earth was bisected by the centre of the orbit; in the theory of Mercury, on the contrary, the mean excentricity of the orbit was bisected by it; in the lunar theory, it continually varied its position; and, in the solar theory, it coincided with

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with the centre of the orbit. Finally, by the complicated motions ascribed to some of the circles, especially in the theories of the moon and Mercury, those bodies were brought, in some parts of their orbits, so near to the earth, that their position was wholly inconsistent with all observations of diurnal parallax.'

With our present advantages of science, improved and confirmed by multiplied observations, the system of Ptolemy appears monstrous and incongruous: by the multiplication of epicycles, it might explain the inequalities in the motions of the heavenly bodies, but it could never adequately account for the alterations of their distances: besides, the planets' motions in latitude caused new perplexities to the system; and (which was a great argument, at least against its simplicity,) it was found necessary continually to increase the number of the epicycles, with the advancing accuracy of observations. Yet these real defects of the Ptolemaic system were not the cause of its overthrow; since the motives which happily induced Copernicus to revolt against antient authority were not founded in reason. He was displeased, not with the complication of the epicycles, (for he himself did not reject their use,) but with the violation of what he thought was a law of nature, the principle of uniform motion in perfect circles:—but now, relying on an astronomy established by numerous and accurate observations, we teach that the motions of the heavenly bodies are neither uniform nor performed in circles. If, however, the cause of Copernicus's revolt was unjustifiable, the revolt itself was most fortunate, and opened a road for the explanation of the true system of the world.

By a happy temerity, or by a wonderful sagacity, Copernicus at one blow demolished a multitude of epicycles, by making the earth to revolve round the sun, like other planets, and its orbit to become a great epicycle. All astronomers know that, by this simple hypothesis, he plainly and adequately accounted for what are called the second inequalities; and it became immediately obvious, with the help of a diagram, why a planet must sometimes appear retrograde, and sometimes stationary. By this hypothesis he was enabled, with the aid of geometry, to assign the ratio subsisting between the distances of the planets from the sun, and to account for the variations of the planets' latitudes. In other explanations, however, Copernicus failed:—in that of the lunar theory, and of the first inequalities of the planets. He exerted, like his predecessors, much ingenuity and much geometry, to no purpose.—The author of the present treatise thus neatly concludes his account of the Copernican system:

'The principal cause which engaged Copernicus in all this waste of labour and ingenuity, was the unhappy prejudices so often mentioned

tioned in favour of uniform and circular motion, joined to his excessive deference for Ptolemy. This deference was indeed the sole cause of that most vexatious part of his labour, which regarded the motions of Mercury: for his situation on the low and foggy banks of the Vistula, rendered it impossible for him to make observations himself on that excentric planet; and he had not presumed, like Kepler, to suspect that Ptolemy, instead of deducing his theory from observations, had sometimes corrected the observations to suit the theory. When he introduced therefore such a complication of circles, and perplexed compositions of their motions, to account for the singular phenomenon of Mercury's greatest digressions taking place at 60° on each side of his least distance from the earth, it was because he had no opportunity of discovering that the phenomenon was imaginary; and the observations, from which it was inferred, either inaccurately made, or unfaithfully transmitted.

'The system of Copernicus was not received, on its appearance, with any degree of that approbation which it deserved, and which it now universally obtains. Its cold reception, indeed, fully justified the hesitation and tardiness of its author, to communicate it to the world. Yet, his want of success in explaining the latitudes and first inequalities of the planets in longitude, and the intricacy of his theories on these subjects, were not the principal causes of rejecting his opinions. On the contrary, those were the parts of his labours which, on their first publication, were chiefly valued: and his theory of Mercury, especially, notwithstanding its being encumbered with more epicycles than his explanation of the second inequalities had banished, excited the admiration of many eminent astronomers. But his system was chiefly opposed, on account of all in it that was valuable and distinguishing: and the substitution of the diurnal and annual motions of the earth, for the apparent diurnal revolution of the heavens, and the annual motion of the sun, was such a violent contradiction, both of the philosophical principles of the age, and the immediate evidence of sense, that all its advantages were undervalued, and proved insufficient to procure to it general credit. The conception of Copernicus, which represented the distance of the fixed stars from the sun to be so immense, that in comparison with it, the whole diameter of the terrestrial orbit shrunk into an imperceptible point, was too great to be adopted suddenly by men accustomed to refer all magnitudes to the earth, and to consider the earth as the principal object in the universe. Instead of being reckoned an answer to the objection against the annual revolution of the earth, that her axis was not found directed to different stars, it was rather considered as the subterfuge of one who had invented, and therefore tried to vindicate, an absurdity: and, when in answer to another equally powerful objection, that no varieties of phase were seen in the planets, especially in Venus and Mercury, Copernicus could only express his hopes that such varieties would be discovered in future times, his reply, though it now raises admiration, could not in his own times make the least impression on those who opposed his system. The earth was universally supposed to be so immense and ponderous as to be incapable of any kind of motion: and the diurnal rotation, in particular, was thought

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thought to be decisively confuted by the consideration of centrifugal force; which would throw off all bodies, animate and inanimate, from its surface. These objections, and many others of no force in themselves, but in that age deemed irresistible, by reason of the low state of human knowledge, prevented the Copernican system from being generally considered in any other light than as a mere hypothesis, and were the principal causes of the celebrity for some time maintained by the system of T. Brahé.'

In pursuance of his plan, Dr. Small next gives an account of Tycho Brahé, with his system and discoveries. The former has shared the fate of the Ptolemaic, and is rejected as false: but his discoveries of the lunar inequality, called the Variation, —of the inequalities of the motions of the nodes, and of the inclination of the lunar orbit,—and lastly his numerous observations which proved so useful to Kepler,—must for ever assign to Tycho Brahé a distinguished place among the founders of astronomical science. His system was favourably received by his contemporaries: for the Danish astronomer shocked not vulgar prejudices, nor was guilty of Galileo's heresy, by ascribing motion to the earth.

'Great, however, as the ingenuity and merits of T. Brahé appear to be, we can hardly fail to perceive the inferiority of his system to the Copernican, in perspicuity, simplicity, and symmetry of parts. The periodical motions which he ascribed to the planets were double, and performed round two different centres; for, considering the orbits of the planets as epicycles, a planet had first to move in the circumference of its epicycle round the sun, and then the sun, carrying along with him all the planetary epicycles, had to move round the centre of the ecliptic: and, if we also take into consideration the diurnal revolution, the system of T. Brahé will be found more complex than that of Ptolemy, who gave one common centre to all the revolutions, both periodical and diurnal. But, notwithstanding the perplexed nature of this system, and that it gave no account why the sun, moon, and planets, should obey the diurnal revolution of a sphere, in which they did not move: or why the planets should obey the annual revolution of the solar sphere, from which the distance of some was immense; or why the earth, though placed between the spheres of Mars and Venus, should alone resist the influence, whatever it might be, which carried these bodies and so many others on each side of it round the sun; such was the difficulty of conceiving and admitting the motion of the earth, that this intricate and incoherent system was preferred to the simple and beautiful system of Copernicus, by all the vulgar; and for a long time rivalled, and even surpassed it, in reputation, among the learned.'

The 5th chapter presents a brief relation of Kepler's studies, of his first publication, of his introduction to Tycho Brahé, and of his original intentions. Kepler soon found that all existing theories were defective; and his first projected innovation was

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suggested to him, as he noted the antient method of forming the theories of the first inequalities of the planets, by observing their mean oppositions only. This method is evidently defective, except in one particular instance. He purposed, therefore, to alter it; and to shew that the planes of the planets' orbits intersected each other in lines passing, not through the centre of the ecliptic, but through the centre of the sun.

'This (says Dr. S.) was the great innovation which he originally intended, and was chiefly desirous to introduce into astronomy. In fact, excepting only the system of Copernicus, it was an improvement more important, and of greater consequence, to simplify the science, than any which had been introduced in all the preceding ages; and his successful and decisive establishment of its truth and propriety, may be justly ranked among his greatest discoveries; and equally deserves our attention with those which have been more generally celebrated.'

The author then states some additional reasons which impelled Kepler to his projected innovation, and which that astronomer communicated to Tycho Brahé. The latter not being convinced, and unwilling to abandon his own notions, Kepler proceeded to compel him by proofs, which are contained in the first part of his Commentary *De Stellâ Martis.*— The next business of Kepler was an examination of Tycho Brahé's system, which the sagacious German soon discovered to be erroneous. Tycho's error chiefly arose from his mistaking the apparent orbit of the planet for the true orbit; by which means, the reductions which he wrongly applied became very great.

Chapter 6th treats on Kepler's theory, founded on apparent oppositions. As a preliminary step to the establishment of this system, Kepler proposed to himself to determine the place of the nodes of a planet's orbit, and the inclination of the orbit; and in this previous labour he made what is to be reckoned one of his principal discoveries, namely, that the inclination of orbits is invariable and constant. This discovery at once demolished the oscillations which Ptolemy had given to the epicycle, and Copernicus to the orbit, of the planet; and it enabled Kepler to pursue his plan of investigating the elements of his first theory of Mars, which he distinguished by the name of the *vicarious theory.*

'When, (observes Dr. Small,) the detail of it is so fatiguing, he appeals to his readers if he, who had gone over all its steps no less than seventy times, was not justly entitled to their sympathy; and if it was at all surprizing that four years had been consumed in the formation of it. If we consider that logarithms were not then invented, the justice of his appeal will be readily admitted.'

Kepler

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Kepler next applied to the verification of his theory; and, as far as it depended on longitudes in oppositions, it was found to be true: but observations of latitudes in opposition, and of longitudes made at points not in opposition, furnished complete refutations of this hypothesis. The excentricity deduced from these observations differed materially from the excentricity given by the longitudes in oppositions. One at least, then, of the principles of the theory was false: 'if the orbit of the planet were a perfect circle, it undeniably appeared, there could be no fixed point within it, about which the planet moved uniformly; or, if the centre of uniform motion were a fixed point in the line of apsides, the orbit of the planet could not be a perfect circle.'

Chapter 7th:—on Kepler's solar theory, that is, his theory of the second inequalities. No disappointment seems to have been sufficient to abate the ardor of Kepler's researches. Baffled in one track, he soon struck into a new investigation: he now resolved to examine all the circumstances of the earth's annual motion; and he speedily discovered the necessity of applying, in the language of Ptolemy, an equant to the earth: or, in other words, he found that the centre of the orbit and equant did not coincide, but that the excentricity was bisected by the centre of the orbit. He then proceeded to researches of greater moment: he endeavoured to derive equations from the relation subsisting between the planet at any point of its orbit, and the planet's distance from the sun; and here he made his first steps towards that famous law, that the planets in equal times describe equal areas round the sun. These approaches were not, indeed, effected with the greatest precision. Certainly, Kepler, taking a circle, proved that the times of describing equal arches at the apsides varied as the distances from the sun: he then assumed it to be true for every point of the orbit; and conceiving the circle to be formed by lines drawn from a point in the diameter of the circle, he endeavoured to find the time of describing an arc by this analogy: as the sum of all the distances of the earth from the sun is to the sum of two distances (for instance), so are the periodic times to the time of describing the arc included between the two distances (the two distances here comprehend a degree, or an element of the circle). He next changed this method, by taking areas instead of the sum of distances; and although both methods are imperfect, yet he had made such near approximations to the true planetary theory, that he was able to prosecute his researches with increasing success.

Chapter 8 contains an account of the resumption of the theory of Mars. In the former attempt, from an imperfect knowlege

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knowlege of the earth's motion, many errors had been committed: but the earth's motion was now better understood; and Kepler, calculating three heliocentric longitudes, and three distances * of Mars from the sun, investigated the circle belonging to these conditions. Taking other distances and longitudes, the elements of the circular orbit were found to be different from those which had been determined in the first instance; and hence a suspicion arose, that the orbit of Mars was not circular.—Kepler, however, did not at once give up the antient principle of circular orbits: but he abandoned all research into the form of the orbit; and calculating the aphelion and perihelion distances from observations, he proceeded to deduce equations in the same manner as in the solar theory. Here his calculation failing him, before he gave up the circular form, he re-examined his method of calculating equations, in which he had taken areas for the sum of distances: but, after much care, ascertaining that the imperfection of his method could not be the cause of his errors, he was at length led to this truth—that the orbit of Mars was not a circle, but a curve interior to a circle.

Kepler was soon again involved in difficulties. Misled by one of his theories, he assumed an oval orbit, which, with great mortification, he was compelled to abandon: but, at a time when his researches and calculations of infinite labour seemed useless and leading to nothing, mere accident befriended him, and shewed him the true law of the distances from the sun. He then advanced in his theory; and after much new alarm and vexation, he found that the orbit of Mars was an ellipse, described (as he investigated it) by means of the librations in the diameter of the epicycle.

After this great discovery, Kepler shewed that the areas described round the sun were proportional to the times of description; he deduced the mean and true anomaly from the excentric; and finally he solved the problem which still bears his name, of finding the true anomaly from the mean. The solution, as indeed are all others which have been given since his time, is an approximate one: an exact one is not to be expected, *propter arcus et sinus* ετερογένειαν †.

* These data are also sufficient to investigate the elements of an elliptical orbit.

† "*Mihi sufficit credere, solvi a priori non posse propter arcus et sinus* ετερογένειαν. *Erranti mihi, quicunque viam monstraverit, is erit mihi magnus Apollonius.*" KEPLER. *Comm. de Motibus Stellæ Martis. Par. IV.* p. 300.

Strong

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Strong confirmation of the truth of his theory was found by Kepler in the observations of latitude; and, which was not the fruit of patient research or sagacious observations, but was fortunately obtained in his fanciful and wild excursions after secret and mysterious analogies, he discovered the law of the relation subsisting between the periods of planets and their distances from the sun;—a law which theory proves to be true, when the masses of the planets are neglected in respect of the sun's mass.

The following is Dr. Small's recapitulation of Kepler's labours and discoveries; drawn up, in our judgment, with singular precision and perspicuity:

'This, then, is the history of the progress of Kepler, in making those celebrated discoveries, which first gave to astronomy a just title to the name of Science. Even at the beginning of his astronomical studies, and when his views were limited to the single object of referring the motions of the planets to the centre of the sun, instead of the centre of the ecliptic, his discoveries were of very great importance: and it is to his ingenuity in prosecuting this original design, that astronomy is indebted for the introduction of many valuable principles, which were either before unknown, or known imperfectly, and improperly applied. Of this kind are his new and various methods for determining the places of the nodes, and the inclinations of the orbits; the doctrine of the invariableness of these inclinations; the principles of the only just and legitimate reductions from any orbit to the ecliptic; and the first accurate determinations of the places and motions, both of the nodes and apsides. In the progress of his studies, and when, on finding the insufficiency of the alteration he had introduced, he reversed the usual process of astronomers, and considered the knowledge of the elements of the terrestrial orbit as the preliminary step for determining the elements of the rest; his discoveries were equally original, and still more valuable. For here, besides a variety of new and ingenious methods for ascertaining the distances of the earth in all points of her orbit from the sun, we find the important consequence was to introduce the principle of the bisection into the solar theory, and to demonstrate that, contrary to the uniform opinion of the ancients, the solar inequalities were no more than those of the planets entirely optical, but partly real: and this principle being universally established, and it appearing to be a general law, that every planet described arches of its orbit, the times of which were as their distances from the sun, the design which he had happily conceived, even in the most early period of his studies, of deriving from this law the whole planetary equations, was not only demonstrated to be possible, but also found, by its success in the solar orbit, to be practicable and advantageous.

'But the most interesting and important of Kepler's discoveries, were made in the application of his improved solar theory to the investigation of the theories of the planets. For here, besides ascertaining that the planes of the planetary orbits pass through the sun's centre,

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centre, we find not only the secret of the true form of the orbit disclosing itself to his penetration, but also the law investigated of the areas of those orbits being proportional to the times employed in describing them; and both these discoveries not only perfectly confirmed by evidence, but successfully applied to the calculation of the equations. As the distances between the earth and the sun, given by the improved solar theory, even in a circular orbit, were, on account of a small degree of excentricity, nearly accurate; the distances of Mars from the sun, to the determination of which they were employed, must also have been nearly accurate. But when the distances of Mars, thus determined, were employed in deducing the elements of his orbit, and that orbit was supposed to be circular, all the conclusions concerning them were, on account of the greater excentricity, found to be false and inconsistent: and when, after the accurate determination of the elements from other principles, the method of areas was employed to calculate the equations, the errors, both in excess and defect, sometimes arose to more than 8′. Since, therefore, neither of these circumstances could have taken place, had the planet really moved in a circle, and particularly since the method of areas never could have produced so great an error as of 1′, in any point of it, strong suspicions arose that the orbit was not circular; and, notwithstanding the reluctance of Kepler to depart from an opinion so long established, and held as an inviolable maxim, the comparison of the real and observed distances of Mars from the sun, with the distances calculated for a supposed circular orbit, shewed the suspicions to be just; and presented evidence, which could not be resisted, that the orbit in all points between the apsides retired within the circle.

'But though it thus appeared that the orbit was not circular, its real form continued undiscovered; and Kepler, in consequence of a precipitate and groundless theory concerning the cause of the deviation from the circle, was led falsely to conclude that it was an oval, coinciding indeed with the circle at the apsides; but whose deviation from it, at 90° of excentric anomaly, counted from either apsis, amounted to no less than 858 parts of its semi-diameter, supposed to contain 100000. The vexatious labour in which this precipitancy engaged him, to describe the oval, to obtain its quadrature, to divide it in any required ratio, and to derive from it just equations, is almost inconceivable, and what perhaps no other person would have had the fortitude and perseverance to undergo. But it was by this labour that the true form of the orbit was discovered; for, on comparing the distances deduced from observation, in no less than forty different points of anomaly, with those caculated for the same points in the oval orbit, the latter were found to fall as much short of the former, as the former had fallen short of the distances calculated for a circular orbit; and, if the method of areas applied to the circle, had produced equations, erring sometimes more than 8′, in excess as well as in defect, the same method applied to the oval produced equal and contrary errors; that is, of defect where the circle shewed excess, and of excess where the circle shewed defect. It was therefore evident, that the real path of the planet lay precisely in the middle

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middle between the circle and the oval; and as in his calculations he had considered the oval as a real ellipse, it followed that the only curve, which could bisect the space intercepted between it and the circle, must be another ellipse.

'When Kepler thus found that the distances, given by his oval theory, fell as much short of the observed distances as those given by the circular theory had exceeded them, a fortunate accident discovered to him, that the distances used in the circle were the secants of the optical equations in all the different points of excentric anomaly; and that, if instead of these, he should use the different radii to which they were the secants, such distances would be obtained as should perfectly agree with the distances deduced from observation. But by a mistake committed in their position, that is, in the position of the planet at the time when its distance was supposed to be just, he again failed in his endeavours to obtain just equations; and, whether he employed the circular areas, or the actual sums of the distances, the true anomalies which he considered as correspondent to them were generally false, and sometimes erred more than 5′ from the point which the planet really occupied. His distances therefore, though proved by observation to be just, seemed to be inconsistent with the elliptical form ascribed to the orbit: for, in fact, by the positions which he had given them, they represented it as a new kind of oval, going beyond the ellipse in the first and fourth quadrants of anomaly, and retiring within it in the second and third; and only differing from the former in this respect, that it deviated less widely from the circle. Accordingly, when rejecting his distances he returned to the ellipse, it was not from perfect conviction of its being the path in which the planet actually moved, but only because no other prospect seemed to remain of applying the principles he had previously established to the derivation of just equations. But by this step of his procedure, the mistake which he had commited in the position of his distances came to be discovered; and the lines which he had substituted for the secants of the optical equations, instead of being inconsistent with the ellipse in which he had supposed the planet Mars to move, were found to lead to the accurate description of it. His speculations, therefore, concerning the elliptical form of the orbit, received the fullest confirmation; the elliptical areas, and the sums of the correspondent diametral distances, were found to be perfectly equivalent; and the just equations derived from them rendered it unquestionable, that this planet both revolves round the sun in an ellipse, and describes round the focus occupied by the sun, areas of its ellipse proportional to the times. By like experiments it was also found, that the same laws regulated the revolutions of all the other planets; and the three discoveries, that the orbits of all the planets are ellipses, in whose common focus the sun is situated; that they describe round the sun areas of their ellipses proportional to the times; and that the squares of the times of their revolutions are proportional to the cubes of the greater axis of their orbits, or of their mean distances from the sun; are justly to be considered as the most important ever made in astronomy. They were, indeed, the foundations of the whole theory of Newton; and it will not perhaps be thought

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thought an unjust conclusion from the consideration of them, that no person, in any age, ever soared higher than Kepler, above the common elevation of his contemporaries.'

That we think highly of this volume may in some degree be inferred from the length of the article: but inference is not sufficient; in plain terms, we are of opinion that Dr. Small has laid the public under much obligation, and has added to his own fame, by the present performance. He seems to have studied the subject with great attention,—to have slurred nothing over,—and he is accurate both in principle and in detail. The reader is made an associate of Kepler's labours, and a participator of his triumphs and disappointments. He views the difficulties with which that philosopher was fated to contend, the low state of science, the prejudices of the times, and antient systems which, if false, were yet the fruit of time, of labour, of ingenuity, and were sanctioned by authority. Placed near the German philosopher, 'those who contemplate this history view the cause and the necessity of his immense labours; they must admire his perseverance and activity, even in the excursions which led him astray from the true object of search; and they must sympathize with him in his dubious wanderings, in his mental perturbations, in the wreck of some of the dearest of his hopes, and in the endurance of that fatigue which it was necessary to sustain before the true system could be founded. *Tantæ molis erat!*

Kepler, indeed, possessed great patience and perseverance, but not the patience and perseverance of a mere plodding mathematician: he was sagacious and inventive; in his suggestions and hypotheses, he was fanciful and excentric, but bold and daring: he often attempted to mount from effects to their causes, and to place himself at the fountain-head of the universe: in fine, he was a philosopher by temper and nature, a geometrician by necessity and from convenience. Nothing was too arduous for him, and nothing ever dismayed him: repeatedly foiled and thrown down, he rose with fresh vigor, and enjoyed (according to his own confession) a hard-won victory: "*Sed tamen jucundior est victoria, quæ parta erat cum periculo; et nitidior ex nubibus sol exit: Attende, igitur, lector, ad pericula nostræ militiæ,*" &c. *Arg. Cap. Comm. de Motubus Stellæ Martis.* When we consider his discoveries in their history and importance, we find ourselves compelled to join in Dr. Small's concluding remark, as above quoted, 'that no person, in any age, ever soared higher than Kepler, above the common elevation of his contemporaries.'

R.W.

ART.

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ART. IV. *The Works of the Right Honourable Lady Mary Wortley Montagu.* Including her Correspondence, Poems, and Essays. Published by Permission, from her genuine Papers. Crown 8vo. 5 Vols. 2l. Boards. R. Phillips. 1803.

THE title of the English Sevigné has generally been given to the fair author of these well-known Letters, and we now find that this was a rank in reputation which she seems to have anticipated. Writing, in 1724, to the Countess of Mar, Lady Mary says, 'The last pleasure that fell in my way was Madame Sevigné's Letters; very pretty they are, but I assert, without the least vanity, that mine will be full as entertaining forty years hence.' It is remarkable that, about forty years after this period, a surreptitious edition of some of her letters issued from the press; and the avidity, with which they were read, proved that she did not over-rate her epistolary talents. In addition to the ease and vivacity which delight the readers of Sevigné, our fair and noble countrywoman displays a mind improved by literature, an extensive observation of mankind, and a judgment matured by habits of reflection. If the world was captivated by the edition of her Letters published in 3 Vols. in 1763 (of which an account was given by us in M. Rev. Vol. xxviii. p. 384.) what pleasure may it not reasonably expect from the present work? It was not generally doubted that the Letters of Lady M—y W—y M——u, formerly printed, really proceeded from the pen of Lady Mary: but they came "in such a questionable shape," that, notwithstanding they bore all the internal remarks of authenticity, they were not perused with complete satisfaction. The manner in which the copy was obtained was not told; and we are obliged to the present editor, Mr. Dallaway, for dissipating the cloud which hung on that transaction. This gentleman informs us that

'In the later periods of Lady Mary's life, she employed her leisure in collecting the copies of the letters she had written during Mr. Wortley's embassy, and had transcribed them herself, in two small volumes in quarto. They were without doubt sometimes shewn to her literary friends. Upon her return to England for the last time, in 1761, she gave these books to Mr. Sowden, a clergyman at Rotterdam, and wrote the subjoined memorandum on the cover of one of them. "These two volumes are given to the Reverend Benjamin Sowden, minister at Rotterdam, to be disposed of as he thinks proper. This is the will and design of M. WORTLEY MONTAGU, December 11, 1761."

'After her death, the late Earl of Bute comissioned a gentleman to procure them, and to offer Mr. Sowden a considerable remuneration, which he accepted. Much to the surprise of that nobleman and Lady Bute, the manuscripts were scarcely safe in England when three volumes of Lady Mary Wortley Montagu's Letters were published

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by Beckett; and it has since appeared, that Mr. Cleland was the Editor. The same gentleman, who had negotiated before, was again dispatched to Holland, and could gain no farther intelligence from Mr. Sowden, than that a short time before he parted with the MSS. two English gentlemen called on him to see the Letters, and obtained their request. They had previously contrived, that Mr. Sowden should be called away during their perusal, and he found on his return that they had disappeared with the books. Their residence was unknown to him, but on the next day they brought back the precious deposit, with many apologies. It may be fairly presumed, that the intervening night was consumed in copying these Letters by several amanuenses. Another copy of them, but not in her own handwriting, Lady Mary had given to Mr. Molesworth, which is now in the possession of the Marquis of Bute. Both in the original MS. and the last-mentioned transcript, the preface, printed by Beckett, is inserted, purported to have been written in 1728, by a lady of quality, and signed M. A.'

Though it may hence be inferred that Lady Mary had meditated the publication of a part at least of her correspondence, and that she had given the MS. to Mr. Sowden with this view, yet it is evident that the Letters which appeared in 1763 were not printed with the consent of any of her family. The volumes now before us may be considered as the only genuine edition of her Ladyship's works; into which, the respectable editor assures us, 'no letter, essay, or poem has been admitted, the original manuscript of which is not at this time extant, in the possession of her grandson, *the Marquis of Bute*;' by whose liberal permission, this work has been prepared for the press.

Prefixed to the Letters, are Memoirs of the Author, by the editor; in which the life of this celebrated lady is briefly sketched, and from which we shall abstract the most prominent circumstances.

Lady Mary Pierrepont, afterward Lady M. W. Montagu, the eldest daughter of Evelyn Duke of Kingston and Lady Mary Fielding, (daughter of William Earl of Denbigh,) was born at Thoresby in Nottinghamshire *about* the year (was there no register of her birth to be found?) 1690. A mother's care she did not long experience: but her father endeavoured to supply the loss; and, encouraged by early indications of uncommon genius, he bestowed on her an education much superior to that which females then received, imbuing her tender mind with classical studies. "Born," as she tells us herself, in one of her letters, "with a passion for learning," and happy in a facility of acquiring language, she improved the uninterrupted leisure and retirement which she enjoyed at Thoresby, and at Acton, (a village not far from London,) by making a rapid proficiency in Greek, Latin, and French. As a proof of this fact, when

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she had scarcely attained her 20th year she presented to Bishop Burnet, who had superintended her education, a version of the Enchiridion of Epictetus, accompanied by a sensible letter, inserted in this collection; the merit of which, observes the editor, 'is not invalidated, even should it be thought that her translation, (of which, in some passages, there is certainly ground for suspicion,) is of the Latin version rather than of the Greek original.'

In Aug. 12, 1712, Lady Mary was married to Edward Wortley Montagu, Esq. the son of her most confidential friend Mrs. Ann Wortley, after a peculiarly aukward and unpromising correspondence of about two years; a specimen of which we purpose to adduce from this part of the collection of letters. For three years after her marriage, she lived in retirement at Warncliffe Lodge near Sheffield; while her husband, a man possessed of solid rather than of brilliant parts, attended his duty in parliament. The appointment of Mr. Wortley, in 1714, to be a commissioner of the Treasury, brought Lady Mary from her retirement to town, and occasioned her first appearance at St. James's; which, as Mr. Dallaway remarks, 'was hailed with that universal admiration which beauty, enlivened by wit, incontestibly claims.' Her personal charms and intellectual accomplishments were attractions not to be resisted. Not confined to the circles of the nobility, she was in habits of familiar acquaintance with Addison, Pope, and other men of genius. In 1716, she accompanied her husband in an Embassy to Constantinople, from which she did not return till 1718; and it was during this period that she wrote those most amusing Letters in 3 Vols. which were published in 1763, containing an account of her travels in Europe, Asia, and Africa. The accuracy of her descriptions is corroborated by the present editor; who, eighty years afterward, followed nearly the same route over the Continent to the seat of the Turkish Empire, and resided nearly the same space of time which Lady Mary passed in the palace of Pera. The fruit of this tour was the introduction of Inoculation into this country. Finding the practice of *ingrafting* the small-pox, as it was then termed, to be common in the Turkish dominions, and attended with the most salutary consequences, she applied it to her own son, at that time about three years old; and by her recommendation, it was adopted here with a success which we need not detail.

On the return of Mr. Wortley to England, Lady Mary, at the earnest solicitation of Mr. Pope, fixed her summer residence at Twickenham: but, though the letters of Mr. Pope to her ladyship during her husband's embassy to the Levant abound with expressions of the most ardent admiration, and

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those of the lady manifest some esteem for the poet, their friendship was not of long duration. The cause of the quarrel, or of the mutual aversion which succeeded, is not explained. Whether Pope was piqued at discovering that, in spite of his love-making letters and fine compliments, the lady regarded his person with disgust, and turned him into ridicule,—or whether, as is here intimated, he envied her talents, and became jealous of her partialities to the Herveys,—we shall not attempt to decide. His hatred, however, was conspicuous, and he endeavoured to blacken her fame by the coarsest satire, and most unwarrantable asperity. Lady Mary is said to have withdrawn from his society, and to have abstained from consulting him as a critic, on finding that he disengenuously encouraged the idea that whatever was good in her ladyship's poetry resulted from his corrections. When the quarrel was avowed, sarcasm on the one side and satire on the other took place: but it must be observed that, whatever were the poet's irritations, he has been most wanton in his resentment, and equally mean in his prevarications on being charged with the fact. It is now generally understood that Pope meant Lady Mary by *Sappho*, though he disclaims such an intention in his Letter to Lord Hervey; and the comment of the present editor, on the poet's reason for discontinuing her ladyship's acquaintance, taken in connection with Warburton's explanatory note, may be thought to confirm the supposition:

"I assure you (writes Pope to Lord Hervey) my reason for doing so (dropping the acquaintance,) was merely that you had *both too much wit for me*, and that I could not do with mine, many things, which you could with yours."

'The explanatory note to the words, *too much wit for me*, in Warburton's edition, consists of the following couplet, from his epistle to Arbuthnot, among the variations.

"Once and but once his heedless youth was bit,
And liked that dangerous thing, a female wit."

'Pope's avowed reason for discontinuing Lady Mary's acquaintance was, therefore, that she had *outwitted* him, and the truth by the corrected lines,

"Yet soft by nature, more a dupe than wit,
Sappho can tell you how this man was bit."

is most fairly proved. For if he were *outwitted* by a female wit, and by *Sappho*, and yet outwitted but *once*, *Sappho* and Lady Mary must of course be the same identical person. Still he did not hesitate to assert, in the same letter, "I can truly affirm, that, ever since I lost the happiness of your conversation, I have not published or written one syllable of, or to either of you, never hitched your names into a verse, or trifled with your good names in company."

'But more attention is not due to the investigation of this controversy, which may now be dispassionately viewed. Time has annihilated

annihilated their animosities, and the liberality of the present age will allow, how much any character may suffer, or may command, under the authority of a great name. The magic of Pope's numbers makes us unwilling to know, that they were not always the vehicle of truth.'

For many years, Lady Mary, possessed of rank and fortune, and enveloped in the gaieties of the fashionable world, led the life of a fine lady; which, however brilliant, was too monotonous to afford incidents meriting biographical notice. In 1739 her health began to be impaired, which circumstance is urged as the ground of a resolution formed by her, of passing the residue of her days on the Continent. Having, therefore, obtained her husband's leave, she left England in the month of July, and hastened to Venice, determining to establish herself in the North of Italy. This second tour to the Continent, and the remainder of her history, are so concisely related by Mr. Dallaway, that we need not attempt to abridge his account:

'Having been gratified by a short tour to Rome and Naples, she returned to Brescia, one of the palaces of which city she inhabited, and appears not only to have been reconciled to, but pleased with, the Italian customs. She spent some months at Avignon and Chamberry. Her summer residence she fixed at Louvere, on the shores of the lake of Isco, in the Venetian territory, whither she had been first invited on account of the mineral waters, which she found greatly beneficial to her health. There she took possession of a deserted palace, she planned her garden, applied herself to the business of a country life, and was happy in the superintendance of her vineyards and silk worms. Books, and those chiefly English, sent her by Lady Bute, supplied the deficiency of society. Her letters from this retreat breathe a truly philosophic spirit, and evince that her care of her daughter and her family was ever nearest to her heart. No one appears to have enjoyed her repose more sincerely, from the occupations of the gay world. Her visits to Genoa and Padua were not unfrequent; but, about the year 1758, she quitted her solitude, and settled entirely at Venice*, where she remained till the death of Mr. Wortley, in 1761. She then yielded to the solicitations of her daughter, the late Countess of Bute, and, after an absence of two-and-twenty years, she began her journey to England, where she arrived in October. But her health had suffered much, and a gradual decline terminated in death, on the 21st of August 1762, and in the seventy-third year of her age. In the cathedral at Litchfield a cœnotaph is erected to her memory, with the following inscription:—

'The monument consists of a mural marble, representing a female figure of Beauty, weeping over the ashes of her preserver, supposed to be inclosed in the urn, inscribed with her cypher M. W. M.

'* The English travellers at Venice, who she presumed might have been induced to visit her from curiosity, she received in a mask and domino, as her dress of ceremony.'

'Sacred to the memory of
The Right Honorable
Lady Mary Wortley Montagu,
who happily introduced from Turkey,
into this country,
the salutary art
of inoculating the small-pox.
Convinced of its efficacy,
she first tried it with success
on her own children,
and then recommended the practice of it
to her fellow-citizens.
Thus by her example and advice
we have softened the virulence,
and escaped the danger of this malignant disease.
To perpetuate the memory of such benevolence,
and to express her gratitude,
for the benefit she herself received
from this alleviating art;
this monument is erected by
Henrietta Inge,
relict of Theodore William Inge, Esq.
and daughter of Sir John Wrottesley, Bart.
in the year of our Lord M,DCC,LXXXIX.'

These memoirs receive additional interest from the insertion of various letters from Pope, Fielding, Young, Addison, &c. together with *fac similes* of their hand-writing.

The letters of this celebrated lady, which occupy almost the whole of these volumes, consist of four series; the first containing her Correspondence before the year 1717; the second, the Letters written by her during Mr. Wortley's Embassy to the Porte, which were surreptitiously given to the public in 1763; the third, Letters sent from England to the Countess of Mar at Paris; and the fourth, Letters to Mr. Wortley and her family, during her second residence abroad, from 1739 to 1761. To these letters are subjoined her translation of Epictetus, and her Poems and Essays. A great portion, therefore, of the matter of these volumes is new; and that part which is a re-publication is given with more correctness, and real names are substituted for the initials which appeared in the edition above-mentioned.

In the Correspondence which is contained in the first volume, we have the letters of Lady Mary Pierrepont to Mrs. Wortley, and those which were addressed to her lover; who appears to have been a remarkably cold admirer, notwithstanding that the Lady is very frank and ingenuous, as will be seen from this single specimen of the courtship:

'To

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'To E. W. Montagu, Esq.

'I intended to make no answer to your letter; it was something very ungrateful, and I resolved to give over all thoughts of you. I could easily have performed that resolve some time ago, but then you took pains to please me: now you have brought me to esteem you, you make use of that esteem to give me uneasiness; and I have the displeasure of seeing I esteem a man that dislikes me. Farewell then: since you will have it so, I renounce all the ideas I have so long flattered myself with, and will entertain my fancy no longer with the imaginary pleasure of pleasing you. How much wiser are all those women I have despised than myself? In placing their happiness in trifles, they have placed it in what is attainable. I fondly thought fine clothes and gilt coaches, balls, operas, and public adoration, rather the fatigues of life; and that true happiness was justly defined by Mr. Dryden (pardon the romantic air of repeating verses), when he says,

"Whom heav'n would bless it does from pomp remove,
And makes their wealth in privacy and love."

These notions had corrupted my judgment as much as Mrs. Biddy Tipkin's. According to this scheme, I proposed to pass my life with you. I yet do you the justice to believe if any man could have been contented with this manner of living, it would have been you. Your indifference to me does not hinder me from thinking you capable of tenderness and the happinesses of friendship: but I find it is not in me you'll ever have them: you think me all that is detestable; you accuse me of want of sincerity and generosity. To convince you of your mistake, I'll shew you the last extremes of both.

'While I foolishly fancied you loved me, (which I confess I had never any great reason for, more than that I wished it,) there is no condition of life I could not have been happy in with you, so very much I liked you—I might say loved, since it is the last thing I'll ever say to you. This is telling you sincerely my greatest weakness; and now I will oblige you with a new proof of generosity—I'll never see you more.—I shall avoid all public places; and this is the last letter I shall send. If you write, be not displeased if I send it back unopened. I shall force my inclinations to oblige yours; and remember that you have told me I could not oblige you more than by refusing you. Had I intended ever to see you again, I durst not have sent this letter. Adieu.'

Though this letter does not seem to be the forerunner of a marriage, and though others equally unpromising follow, the catastrophe in due time took place; after which we behold Lady Mary's good sense and worldly wisdom in the character of a wife:

'To E. W. Montagu, Esq. 1714.

'Though I am very impatient to see you, I would not have you, by hastening to come down, lose any part of your interest. I am surprized you say nothing of where you stand. I had a letter from Mrs. Hewet last post, who said she heard you stood at Newark, and

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would be chose without opposition; but I fear her intelligence is not at all to be depended on. I am glad you think of serving your friends; I hope it will put you in mind of serving yourself. I need not enlarge upon the advantages of money; every thing we see and every thing we hear, puts us in remembrance of it. If it were possible to restore liberty to your country, or limit the encroachments of the prerogative, by reducing yourself to a garret, I should be pleased to share so glorious a poverty with you; but, as the world is and will be, 'tis a sort of duty to be rich, that it may be in one's power to do good; riches being another word for power, towards the obtaining of which the first necessary qualification is impudence, and (as Demosthenes said of pronunciation in oratory) the second is impudence, and the third, still, impudence. No modest man ever did or ever will make his fortune. Your friend Lord Halifax, R. Walpole, and all other remarkable instances of quick advancement, have been remarkably impudent. The Ministry is like a play at Court; there's a little door to get in, and a great crowd without, shoveing and thrusting who shall be foremost; people who knock others with their elbows, disregard a little kick of the shins, and still thrust heartily forwards, are sure of a good place. Your modest man stands behind in the crowd, is shoved about by every body, his clothes torn, almost squeezed to death, and sees a thousand get in before him, that don't make so good a figure as himself.

'I don't say it is impossible for an impudent man not to rise in the world; but a moderate merit, with a large share of impudence, is more probable to be advanced than the greatest qualifications without it.

'If this letter is impertinent, it is founded upon an opinion of your merit, which, if it is a mistake, I would not be undeceived; it is my interest to believe (as I do) that you deserve every thing, and are capable of every thing; but nobody else will believe it if they see you get nothing.

M. W. M.'

Incorporated with the second series, are the Letters which were addressed to Lady Mary during her first visit to the Continent, and which are copied from the originals in the possession of the Marquis of Bute. Some of these are to be found printed in Pope's works, in the section intitled "Letters to Several Ladies:" but, if compared with those which are before us, considerable variations will be discovered. Mr. Pope informs his fair correspondent that he sent more copies than one, which may account for this difference: or it may arise from subsequent alterations made by Mr. Pope when he prepared his Letters for publication.

To Letter XX. in the section above-mentioned in Pope's Works, Vol. VII., this addition appears in the Letter taken from the MS. in the possession of Lady Mary's noble relative. After the words, "enjoy elsewhere," it proceeds;

'May

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'May that person for whom you have left all the world be so just as to prefer you to all the world. I believe his good understanding has engaged him to do so hitherto, and I think his gratitude must for the future. May you continue to think him worthy of whatever you have done; may you ever look upon him with the eyes of a first lover, nay, if possible, with all the unreasonable happy fondness of an unexperienced one, surrounded with all the enchantments and ideas of romance and poetry. In a word, may you receive from him as many pleasures and gratifications as even I think you can give. I wish this from my heart, and while I examine what passes there in regard to you, I cannot but glory in my own heart that it is capable of so much generosity. I am, with all unalterable esteem and sincerity,

'Madam,

'your most faithful obedient humble servant,

'A Pope.'

Letter XXI., of Pope's Correspondence with Several Ladies, is still more different from that which is printed among Lady Mary's collection. Here we meet with this singular addition:

'If I don't take care, I shall write myself all out to you; and if this correspondence continues on both sides at the free rate I would have it, we shall have very little curiosity to encourage our meeting at the day of judgment. I foresee that the further you go from me, the more freely I shall write; and if (as I earnestly wish) you would do the same, I can't guess where it will end: let us be like modest people, who, when they are close together, keep all decorums; but if they step a little aside, or get to the other end of a room, can untie garters or take off shifts without scruple.'

Pope speaks of 'the disguise of a discontented heart:' but in this language there is little of either disguise or decorum. The poet evidently must have been enamoured of this fine woman; and when he found that his passion was the source of disgust and ridicule, poignant hatred succeeded to his love.

We shall pass over the third series, and direct the reader's attention to some parts of Lady Mary's correspondence during her residence in Italy. She was now no longer young; her pursuits were those of a *femme philosophe*; and, if we excuse some degree of misanthropy, (occasioned perhaps by the mortifications which declining life is doomed to suffer) her observations on the world will be found to be as sage as they are lively, and to display a clear insight into the human character. Her descriptions of places are given with so much ease and nature, that we seem to travel with her. The subjoined account of herself, of her physician, and of her retreat at Louvere, cannot fail to be perused with considerable interest:

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'TO THE COUNTESS OF BUTE.

Louvere, June 23, N. S. 1752.

'Soon after I wrote my last letter to my dear child, I was seized with so violent a fever, accompanied with so many bad symptoms, my life was despaired of by the physician of Gottolengo, and I prepared myself for death with as much resignation as that circumstance admits: some of my neighbours, without my knowledge, sent express for the doctor of this place, whom I have mentioned to you formely as having uncommon secrets. I was surprised to see him at my bedside. He declared me in great danger, but did not doubt my recovery, if I was wholly under his care; and his first prescription was transporting me hither: the other physician asserted positively I should die on the road. It has always been my opinion that it is a matter of the utmost indifference where we expire, and I consented to be removed. My bed was placed on a brancard; my servants followed in chaises; and in this equipage I set out. I bore the first day's journey of fifteen miles without any visible alteration. The doctor said as I was not worse I was certainly better; and the next day proceeded twenty miles to Isco, which is at the head of this lake. I lay each night at noblemen's houses, which were empty. My cook, with my physician, always preceded two or three hours, and I found my chamber and all necessaries ready prepared with the exactest attention. I was put into a bark in my litter bed, and in three hours arrived here. My spirits were not at all wasted (I think rather raised) by the fatigue of my journey. I drank the water next morning, and with a few doses of my physician's prescription, in three days found myself in perfect health, which appeared almost a miracle to all that saw me. You may imagine I am willing to submit to the orders of one that I must acknowledge the instrument of saving my life, though they are not entirely conformable to my will and pleasure. He has sentenced me to a long continuance here, which, he says, is absolutely necessary to the confirmation of my health, and would persuade me that my illness has been wholly owing to my omission of drinking the waters these two years past. I dare not contradict him, and must own he deserves (from the various surprising cures I have seen,) the name given him in this country of the miraculous man. Both his character and practice are so singular, I cannot forbear giving you some account of them. He will not permit his patients to have either surgeon or apothecary: he performs all the operations of the first with great dexterity, and whatever compounds he gives, he makes in his own house; those are very few: the juice of herbs, and these waters, being commonly his sole prescriptions. He has very little learning, and professes drawing all his knowledge from experience, which he possesses, perhaps, in a greater degree than any other mortal, being the seventh doctor of his family, in a direct line. His forefathers have all of them left journals and registers solely for the use of their posterity, none of them having published any thing; and he has recourse to these manuscripts on every difficult case, the veracity of which, at least, is unquestionable. His vivacity is prodigious, and he is indefatigable in his industry; but what most distinguishes him is a disinterestedness

I never

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I never saw in any other: he is as regular in his attendance on the poorest peasant, from whom he never can receive one farthing, as on the richest of the nobility; and whenever he is wanted, will climb three or four miles on the mountains, in the hottest sun, or heaviest rain, where a horse cannot go, to arrive at a cottage, where, if their condition requires it, he does not only give them advice and medicines gratis, but bread, wine, and whatever is needful. There never passes a week without one or more of these expeditions. His last visit is generally to me. I often see him as dirty and tired as a foot-post, having eat nothing all day but a roll or two that he carries in his pocket, yet blest with such a perpetual flow of spirits, he is always gay to a degree above chearfulness. There is a peculiarity in this character that I hope will incline you to forgive my drawing it.

'I have already described to you this extraordinary spot of land, which is almost unknown to the rest of the world, and indeed does not seem to be destined by nature to be inhabited by human creatures, and I believe would never have been so, without the cruel civil war between the Guelps and Gibellines. Before that time here were only the huts of a few fishermen, who came at certain seasons on account of the fine fish with which this lake abounds, particularly trouts, as large and red as salmon. The lake itself is different from any other I ever saw or read of, being the colour of the sea, rather deeper tinged with green, which convinces me that the surrounding mountains are full of minerals, and it may be rich in mines yet undiscovered, as well as quarries of marble, from whence the churches and houses are ornamented, and even the streets paved; which, if polished and laid with art, would look like the finest mosaic work, being a variety of beautiful colours. I ought to retract the honourable title of street, none of them being broader than an alley, and impassable for any wheel carriage except a wheel barrow. This town, which is the largest of twenty-five that are built on the banks of the lake of Isco, is near two miles long, and the figure of a semi-circle, and situated at the northern extremity. If it was a regular range of building, it would appear magnificent; but being founded accidentally by those who sought a refuge from the violences of those times, it is a mixture of shops and palaces, gardens and houses which ascend a mile high, in a confusion which is not disagreeable. After this salutary water was found, and the purity of the air experienced, many people of quality chose it for their summer residence, and embellished it with several fine edifices. It was populous and flourishing, till that fatal plague, which over-ran all Europe in the year 1626. It made a terrible ravage in this place: the poor were almost destroyed, and the rich deserted it. Since that time it has never recovered its former splendor; few of the nobility returned; it is now only frequented during the water-drinking season. Several of the ancient palaces are degraded into lodging-houses, and others stand empty in a ruinous condition: one of these I have bought. I see you lift up your eyes in wonder at my indiscretion. I beg you to hear my reasons before you condemn me. In my infirm state of health the unavoidable noise of a public lodging is very disagreeable; and here is no private one: secondly, and chiefly, the whole purchase is but one hundred pounds, with a very pretty garden in terraces down

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to the water, and a court behind the house. It is founded on a rock, and the walls so thick, they will probably remain as long as the earth. It is true the apartments are in most tattered circumstances, without doors or windows. The beauty of the great saloon gained my affection: it is forty-two feet in length by twenty five, proportionably high, opening into a balcony of the same length, with a marble balustre; the ceiling and flooring are in good repair, but I have been forced to the expence of covering the wall with new stucco; and the carpenter is at this minute taking measure of the windows in order to make frames for sashes. The great stairs are in such a declining way, it would be a very hazardous exploit to mount them: I never intend to attempt it. The state bed-chamber shall also remain for the sole use of the spiders that have taken possession of it, along with the grand cabinet, and some other pieces of magnificence, quite useless to me, and which would cost a great deal to make habitable. I have fitted up six rooms, with lodgings for five servants, which are all I ever will have in this place; and I am persuaded that I could make a profit if I would part with my purchase, having been very much favoured in the sale, which was by auction, the owner having died without children, and I believe he had never seen this mansion in his life, it having stood empty from the death of his grandfather. The governor bid for me, and nobody would bid against him. Thus I am become a citizen of Louvere, to the great joy of the inhabitants, not (as they would pretend) from their respect for my person, but I perceive they fancy I shall attract all the travelling English; and, to say truth, the singularity of the place is well worth their curiosity; but, as I have no correspondents, I may be buried here thirty years, and nobody know any thing of the matter.'

In another letter to the Countess of Bute, she thus describes her *landed-property* and her manner of life:

'Louvere, June 10, N. S. 1753.

'I have been these six weeks, and still am, at my dairy house, which joins to my garden. I believe I have already told you it is a long mile from the castle, which is situate in the midst of a very large village, once a considerable town, part of the walls still remaining, and has not vacant ground enough about it to make a garden, which is my greatest amusement, it being now troublesome to walk, or even go in the chaise till the evening. I have fitted up in this farm-house a room for myself, that is to say, strewed the floor with rushes, covered the chimney with moss and branches, and adorned the room with basons of earthen ware (which is made here to great perfection) filled with flowers, and put in some straw chairs, and a couch-bed, which is my whole furniture. This spot of ground is so beautiful, I am afraid you will scarce credit the description, which, however, I can assure you, shall be very literal, without any embellishment from imagination. It is on a bank, forming a kind of peninsula, raised from the river Oglio fifty feet, to which you may descend by easy stairs cut in the turf, and either take the air on the river, which is as large as the Thames at Richmond, or by walking an avenue two hundred yards on the side of it, you find a wood of a hundred acres, which was all ready cut into walks and ridings when I took it. I have

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have only added fifteen bowers in different views, with seats of turf. They were easily made, here being a large quantity of underwood, and a great number of wild vines, which twist to the top of the highest trees, and from which they make a very good sort of wine they call brusco. I am now writing to you in one of these arbours, which is so thick shaded, the sun is not troublesome, even at noon. Another is on the side of the river, where I have made a camp-kitchen, that I may take the fish, dress, and eat it immediately, and at the same time see the barks, which ascend or descend every day to or from Mantua, Guastalla, or Pont de Vie, all considerable towns. This little wood is carpetted, in their succeeding seasons, with violets and strawberries, inhabited by a nation of nightingales, and filled with game of all kinds, excepting deer and wild boar, the first being unknown here, and not being large enough for the other.

'My garden was a plain vineyard when it came into my hands not two years ago, and it is, with a small expence, turned into a garden that (apart from the advantage of the climate) I like better than that of Kensington. The Italian vineyards are not planted like those in France, but in clumps, fastened to trees planted in equal ranks (commonly fruit trees), and continued in festoons from one to another, which I have turned into covered galleries of shade, that I can walk in the heat without being incommoded by it. I have made a dining room of verdure capable of holding a table of twenty covers; the whole ground is three hundred and seventeen feet in length, and two hundred in breadth. You see it is far from large; but so prettily disposed (though I say it), that I never saw a more agreeable rustic garden, abounding with all sorts of fruit, and producing a variety of wines. I would send you a pipe, if I did not fear the customs would make you pay too dear for it. I believe my description gives you but an imperfect idea of my garden. Perhaps I shall succeed better in describing my manner of life, which is as regular as that of any monastery. I generally rise at six, and as soon as I have breakfasted, put myself at the head of my needle women, and work with them till nine. I then inspect my dairy, and take a turn among my poultry, which is a very large inquiry. I have, at present, two hundred chickens, besides turkies, geese, ducks, and peacocks. All things have hitherto prospered under my care; my bees and silk-worms are doubled, and I am told that, without accidents, my capital will be so in two years time. At eleven o'clock I retire to my books, I dare not indulge myself in that pleasure above an hour. At twelve I constantly dine, and sleep after dinner till about three. I then send for some of my old priests, and either play at piquet or whist, till 'tis cool enough to go out. One evening I walk in my wood, where I often sup, take the air on horseback the next, and go on the water the third. The fishery of this part of the river belongs to me; and my fisherman's little boat (to which I have a green lutestring awning) serves me for a barge. He and his son are my rowers without any expence, he being very well paid by the profit of the fish, which I give him on condition of having every day one dish for my table. Here is plenty of every sort of fresh water fish (excepting salmon); but we have a large trout so like it, that I who have almost forgot the taste, do not distinguish it.'

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The publications of the day, sent to her from England, are the subjects of remark in many of her letters. Of Johnson's *Rambler*, she thus speaks:

'The Rambler is certainly a strong misnomer; he always plods in the beaten road of his predecessors, following the Spectator (with the same pace a pack horse would do a hunter) in the style that is proper to lengthen a paper. These writers may, perhaps, be of service to the public, which is saying a great deal in their favour. There are numbers of both sexes who never read any thing but such productions, and cannot spare time, from doing nothing, to go through a sixpenny pamphlet. Such gentle readers may be improved by a moral hint, which, though repeated over and over, from generation to generation, they never heard in their lives. I should be glad to know the name of this laborious author.'

She read Novels, but she perceived their evil-tendency, which she thus reprobates:

'All this sort of books have the same fault, which I cannot easily pardon, being very mischievous. They place a merit in extravagant passions, and encourage young people to hope for impossible events, to draw them out of the misery they choose to plunge themselves into, expecting legacies from unknown relations, and generous benefactors to distressed virtue, as much out of nature as fairy treasures.'

The works of Fielding and Smollett were great favorites with her Ladyship, in this line of reading.

Female beauties should study Lady M. W. Montagu, in order to learn how to grow old with a grace. When she was 66 years of age, she thus writes to her daughter:

'There is a quiet after the abandoning of pursuits, something like the rest that follows a laborious day. I tell you this for your comfort. It was formerly a terrifying view to me, that I should one day be an old woman. I now find that nature has provided pleasures for every state. Those are only unhappy who will not be contented with what she gives, but strive to break through her laws, by affecting a perpetuity of youth, which appears to me as little desirable at present as the babies do to you, that were the delight of your infancy. I am at the end of my paper, which shortens the sermon.'

In her poetic pieces, Lady Mary was very careless of her rhimes, and consequently interrupts the satisfaction which we should otherwise receive from the effusions of her Muse; yet her poems have been and will continue to be admired. The public are acquainted with so many of them inserted in Dodsley's Collection, that we shall here add only two short compositions:

'An Answer to a Lady,

Who advised Lady M. W. Montagu to retire.

'You little know the heart that you advise,
I view this various scene with equal eyes;

In

In crowded court I find myself alone,
And pay my worship to a nobler throne.

'Long since the value of this world I knew;
Piti'd the folly, and despis'd the shew;
Well as I can, my tedious part I bear,
And wait dismissal without pain or fear.

'Seldom I mark mankind's detested ways,
Not hearing censure nor affecting praise;
And unconcern'd my future fate I trust,
To that sole Being merciful and just.'

'Written at Louvere, October 1736.

'If age and sickness, poverty and pain,
Should each assault me with alternate plagues,
I know mankind is destined to complain,
And I submit to torment and fatigues.

'The pious farmer, who ne'er misses pray'rs,
With patience suffers unexpected rain;
He blesses Heav'n for what its bounty spares,
And sees, resign'd, a crop of blighted grain.
But spite of sermons, farmers would blaspheme,
If a star fell to set their thatch on flame.'

The Essays consist of a Letter from the other world, to a Lady, by her former husband—Essay in a Paper called "the Nonsense of Common Sense," published Jan. 24, 1738;—a fragment of a fairy tale, in French, entitled *Carabosse*;—and Remarks on Rochefoucault's Maxim that "there are convenient but no happy marriages;" in which Lady Mary undertakes to defend Marriage against this severe reflection. This state, no doubt, frequently occasions disappointment; yet the remark of Dr. Johnson ought to be recollected by complaining wives and husbands, that "marriage is no otherwise unhappy than human life is unhappy."

As an editor, Mr. Dallaway has not officiously obtruded himself; though he has corrected the little inaccuracies of the former edition, and has subjoined short notes, by which the value of the work is augmented.

With the letter-press are given fac-similes of the correspondence of Pope, Addison, Young, Fielding, &c. as well as of Lady Mary, and two portraits of her.

Thus Lady Mary Wortley Montagu appears fully before the public as an author; and that critic must be frigid and unjust who, after such ample evidences of her brilliant mind, remains insensible to her merit, and reluctant to award her the fullest commendation.

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ART. V. *Bonaparte, and the French People under his Consulate.* Translated from the German. 8vo. pp. 379. 7s. Boards. Tipper and Richards. 1804.

THE accounts hitherto laid before the public, respecting the extraordinary person who is the subject of this work, have been for the most part scanty, jejune, and of dubious credit; while, according to the bias of the writer, they have either dealt out the most bitter invectives, or have teemed with the most fulsome praises. The author before us, whether he be German or English, (we should suspect him to be the latter, if he did not discover a tincture of a philosophy which is more generally followed on the Continent than in our island,) claims a considerable superiority over all those who have preceded him in the same course; since he appears to have had favourable opportunities of observing his hero, and to have diligently availed himself of them. In the estimate which he forms of him, as well in a private as a public character, he displays a great compass of information, considerable judgment and discrimination, and very respectable descriptive talents. His dispassionate manner and studied impartiality also deserve great praise. A friend to rational liberty and human amelioration, he does not conceal his aversion from the plans and views of the First Consul, for such was his designation when this book was penned; and when he arraigns and exposes them, he does this by analyzing them, and setting forth their real tendency. He abstains from harsh epithets and virulent language, and leaves facts to speak for themselves. He readily admits the claims of Bonaparte to the highest military renown, to unrivalled activity, and to unparalleled dexterity in pursuing his schemes; and no attempt is made to conceal the obligations which he has conferred on the nation over which he rules. If he be exhibited as a dark, designing, crafty, merciless tyrant, who pursues solely the aggrandizement of his power, the picture is composed by displaying the particulars of his conduct, by developing his plans, and by placing his measures in open view. The outlines of his policy are sketched in a masterly manner, his public acts are ably discussed, and the aims which he studies to conceal are made to appear from facts not generally known, and from circumstances which had been unobserved by others.—The work presents equal attractions to those who read for pastime, and to those who seek instruction in the important science which weighs and regulates the interest of states and empires.

We shall exhibit some of the most remarkable features of the hero's infant days. Having informed us that Bonaparte was

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born on the 15th of August 1769, at Ajaccio, in Corsica; that his father was a lawyer; and that General Marbœuf, who finished the conquest of the island, and who remained there as its governor, became his patron, and placed him, when ten years old, at the military college of Brienne, whence his superior attainments procured him an admission into the military school at Paris; the writer relates that, at this tender age,

'The deliverance of his native land from the French yoke was his favourite theme; and his expressions, in that respect, often betrayed in him a belief of its being his destiny happily to accomplish the plans, in which Paoli, who was then the idol of his heart, had proved unsuccessful His school-fellows could not provoke his anger more, than by calling him a vassal of France. He had sworn eternal hatred to the Genoese, by whom Corsica was sold to that power. One day, when a young Corsican, newly arrived, was presented to him as a Genoese, he instantly seized him by the hair, and would have killed him, if some stronger boys had not parted them. For several weeks after, his rage always rekindled, when by chance he met this young student.

'He likewise signalized himself from his school-fellows, by a religious cast of mind, to the great satisfaction of his spiritual teachers.

'The mode of instruction in this college, being chiefly calculated for improvement in military art, coincided best with his inclination. Bonaparte did not profit much by the general instructions at the beginning, but soon devoted himself exclusively to the study of mathematics. He cared little about the knowledge of classic or modern languages, and still less for an acquaintance with the liberal arts and sciences; even the mechanical proficiencies of youth, as writing, riding, &c. were little regarded by him: hence he still writes a bad, illegible hand, and is but an indifferent horseman His greatest delight was in reading Plutarch, and the life of the Marshal Prince of Saxony, which he chose as a recreation after the regular hours of close study in mathematics.

'The first friend he selected among his school fellows was Faucelet de Bourienne, like him a student in mathematics, and a youth who by his mild temper and pleasing bashfulness, had gained the good will of all the other boys. This Bourienne became, and always continued, first private secretary to Bonaparte, till the present year.

'His moroseness, and rough behaviour, to most of his school-fellows, exposed him to continual quarrels and battles, in which he generally suffered, being the weakest; yet he would never lodge a complaint with his rigid schoolmasters against them. He was generally their speaker and advocate in their little insurrections, and was usually singled out and punished as the leader, when the other boys would cringe for fear of being flogged; yet the most severe chastisement could not draw a single complaint from his lips.'

We are here informed that it was his brother Lucien, who found means, by way of England, to transmit to him in Egypt an account of the disasters with which France had been visited;

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sited; and it is suggested that the English were not unapprized of his intentions to depart, though they were remiss in obstructing the execution of them, under the notion that the fall of the colony would speedily follow, when no longer cherished and protected by its founder.

The author thus describes the situation of Bonaparte on his attainment of the Consulship:

'He had now reached the plenitude of power; thirty millions of his fellow-creatures obeyed him: he was uncontrolled and secure; all parties pressed forward to join him; tired with their long continued strifes and numberless disorders, all looked up to him, in the hopes of security and happiness; all confided in the republican hero, who had even attempted to disseminate knowledge and freedom through the deserts of Africa. It was a happy moment: no hero, no legislator, in ancient or modern history, had ever been so successful. All was prepared; the materials of a glorious constitution for mankind were at hand—ready at the disposal of a truly great man, who, forgetful of his own interest, only studied the good of mankind: but Bonaparte was not this great man—his was not this noble aim. Whether he was actuated by that thirst of power, by which men of strong minds and uncontrollable activity are usually impelled; or by his conviction of the French being incapable of freedom; Bonaparte was only courageous; having no other view than to establish himself sole ruler.

'A new constitution, as it was called, by which all public functions were to be subordinate to him, was introduced on the 15th of December; by it all authority was vested in the hands of one single man. And this same constitution was but a tool, which he might lay aside whenever he chose: a legislative body, without the power of imposing laws: a tribunate, with full powers to make complaints, which the government had a right to disregard: a senate, incapable of enforcing its decrees—these were the bulwarks against the despotism of a man, in whose hands all executive power was lodged, who could propose laws and even annihilate at once the constitution altogether.'—

'Bonaparte made it his particular study from the beginning, to gain the good opinion of all men of genius; certain, that by securing their voice, he would have the suffrage of all. Being himself one of the most extraordinary men, the darling of good fortune, at the head of a people, ever prone to excess in adulation, and proud of their rulers, it was no wonder that fulsome praises and exultations resounded from all quarters. Foreigners, taking the newspapers and journals as the general interpreters of public opinion, were often led to think the enthusiasm for Bonaparte was universal; but a short residence at Paris, and the visiting public places of resort, or mixed societies, would soon convince them of their error. Bonaparte is by no means popular.—He is cold and reserved—he knows not how to inspire affection; a formal, carefully regulated deference and respect are shewn him; and he stands the more firm on that very account. He is not one of those idols raised by the voice of the people, commonly trampled upon with as little and as unexpected ceremony, as when first raised to unlimited power: he owes his rise to himself alone, and appears, for that very reason,

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reason, to the multitude, as a superior being. The excessive authority of which he is possessed, banishes all familiarity even from those who are next to him in power. He has few enemies, an immense number of partisans, and hardly a single friend There is no cause at present by which the enthusiasm of the people can possibly be raised. None of the parties can be said to rule; none of them are suppressed: they are mixed one with another in such a manner, that it is difficult to decide which of them enjoys the greatest influence; he therefore does not consider himself dependent on their will. The principal leaders of the jacobin party have received a bribe from government, and have deserted their flock: their generals have changed sides – General Jourdan, in Piedemont, Fouche, the Minister of Police at Paris, and Dubois, are living proofs of this assertion. The whole party is torn asunder, and will scarcely ever be able to re-establish itself. Many of the royalists have degraded themselves by accepting offices under the present government, though in their heart they despise the Corsican.'

After the conspiracy of the *Infernale*,

'Bonaparte adopted several measures, which betrayed anxious fear for his personal security. His consular guard, which had been established from the beginning of his consulate, and all military guards, under whose protection he used to appear in public, were increased. His causing himself to be surrounded in such a manner, that the most undaunted, who might hazard their own lives to rid the world of this usurper, should find it impossible to approach him, degenerated into a perfect manœuvre, and became a new branch of military art. He has never since appeared abroad without these additional precautions of security. This dreadful catastrophe furnished him with a pretext for changing his mode of living, which had formerly been more liberal. Though disagreeable to him, he chiefly confined himself within the circle of his family, attended by his guards. Malmaison, a small country seat, belonging to his wife, but wholly isolated, and, on that account, the more easily defended, had often been the place of his residence; he also occasionally resided at the palace of the Thuilleries, which he had entered with great solemnity, soon after his being made consul; every corner being filled with his consular guards. For some time past he had lived almost exclusively at Malmaison, where he introduced a strict court etiquette, which rendered him absolutely invisible to all persons whom he did not know to be entirely devoted to him. Very few of those learned men and artists, formerly admitted in great numbers into his presence and family, were now permitted to approach him; the only persons to whom this favour was continued were groveling creatures, on whose slavish submission he could depend; and they were soon thrown back into the proper distance between master and servants.'

It is the design of this work to impress the reader's mind with the idea that Bonaparte is engaged in a systematic plan, the object of which is to extinguish in the French every relique of a republican spirit, and to give them habits and feelings directly the reverse of those which were attempted to be in-

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duced by the first leaders of the revolution. These views of the Consul are said to be apparent in the character of the festivals with which he has indulged the people, since his attainment of the supreme power. Alluding to the first 14th of July, which happened under the Consulship, the writer says;

'This day, which had been hailed for twelve years as a day of liberty, and of the destruction of the Bastile, peace was celebrated; not in the extensive *champ de Mars*, where all republican feasts had been given since the grand anniversary of the confederation, but in the Elysian fields, where the people had been often entertained in the times of royal France.

'The whole management of this festival of peace bore a striking resemblance to the feasts given by the old court to the Parisians. In the room of the lofty temple of liberty in the field of Mars, where religious, judiciary, and military solemnities made an awful impression on the mind, there was to be seen a pretty, glittering, little kind of illuminated rotunda, built of wood, in which a number of fiddlers were scraping away, exactly as in the days of the old court, on the anniversary of St. Louis. Instead of prize fighting, grand races, and combats in the Roman style, in which every republican of note or property formerly used to take a share, there were to be seen, as in the good old times, a number of litte scaffolds for tumblers, rope-dancers, harlequins, pantaloons, scaramouchers, &c. Franconi, with his troop, had also places assigned, for feats of horsemanship and pantomimes. Garnerin rose with his balloon; and a *mât de l'ocagne* was erected, greased all over, intended to be climbed on, and hung with hams and sausages for the greedy rabble. Places for dancing were likewise appointed; in short, there was every thing to amuse an idle people, fond of merriment; and yet the people did not dance much. They were neither noisy nor much disposed for mirth: it was, indeed, a very composed and decent rejoicing.'

We cannot follow the author into a history of the intrigues and devices by which the re-establishment of the Catholic religion was prepared and accomplished, and of the parts taken by the Abbé Geoffroy, La Harpe, Beurrier, and Chateaubriand, in this change. Bonaparte does not here receive the praises for this measure with which he has been complimented from some other quarters, not accustomed to view his proceedings with approbation: for this writer regards it only as a part of the system above-mentioned, by which the conqueror seeks to debase the public mind, to shut out improvement, and to adapt the nation for the despotic government which he now exercises over it.

The account here given of the overtures made to the *Noblesse* of the old court to join the suite of the First Consul, of their refusal, of their secluded mode of living, and of their persecutions, forms a very interesting part of the volume.

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'He who rode triumphant over Mount St. Gothard, and through the sandy deserts of Syria: he who gives law to the greatest part of Europe; and disposes at his will of the finest countries: this mighty chief, at the head of so populous an empire, feels desires that he cannot satisfy. Casting his longing eye around, he fixes it by chance upon the saloon of Madam de Montessan. It happened at that moment to be crowded with persons of the first rank—"Those nobles shall be my attendants," he cries; and immediately dispatches his devoted dæmons with invitations, offers, and promises. But promises, offers, and invitations are ineffectual; the messenger returns disappointed and chagrined; he tells him that all his efforts have been fruitless; that their demands were far beyond what he would accede to.

'The angry fearful man is thus compelled to stand alone on the pinnacle of his newly-acquired dignity; watching night and day these rebels to his will. Their words, their actions, their looks, are equally objects of his suspicion; not even a gesture is suffered to escape him. Alarmed by continual fears, when they assemble in great numbers, he immediately disperses them. If they flee back to the coast, they are driven to the mountains; if they take refuge among the rocks, they are hunted to the sea.'

At the present court, we are told,

'There is nothing of that politeness, ease, vivacity, and grace, which signalized the societies at the royal court. Every body stares with a slavish gaze at the First Consul, who treats them indiscriminately in a dry, cold, and harsh manner. He sometimes attempts to be polite or witty, but his politness is a proud condescension, and his wit is satire. There is always something rough or low in his way of expressing himself. He frequently makes use of terms, only to be found in the mouth of the upstart soldier, and proscribed by all good company. He is capable of using the most abusive language with the greatest indifference. The tone of his voice is deep and hoarse, and what he says is often accompanied with such a disagreeable laugh, that nobody can feel easy with him, even when he attempts to say the most agreeable things.

'The highest officers of state must sometimes hear themselves addressed by epithets, which, certainly never escaped the lips of a sovereign. If he think he has caught one of his ministers or privy counsellors in something contradictory, he frequently says, "*vous etes un homme de mauvaise foi*;" or—"*vous me trompez.*"—(You are a man not to be trusted—you cheat me.')

Yet the etiquette of no court is more strict than that of the Thuilleries:

'From the Second Consul down to the lowest private of the guards at the gate, every one has his fixed place assigned him, which he dares not leave for a single moment, and where he remains immovable, staring at his neighbour, who is also fastened to the ground, without speaking a single word. Bonaparte alone goes the rounds in the circle formed only by the ambassadors and foreigners of distinction. The minister of foreign affairs, now M. Talleyrand, can only enter this circle, when a new ambassador is to be presented.'

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A full-sized portrait of Talleyrand follows. Whether it be overcharged, or not, we shall not presume to determine: but, if pique has had any share in it, (as the style, unlike that of the author on other occasions, might lead us to suspect,) still it exhibits many characteristic features, and is executed with much ability. It is of too great a magnitude for us to copy.

There can be no doubt that the re-establishment of the Catholic worship greatly increased the number of the partisans of Bonaparte: but we are told that the measure was far from being universally acceptable; that vast numbers of Catholics, dreading the tyranny of their old clergy, have turned Protestants; and that this disposition increases, and considerably alarms the government, which has it in contemplation to apply to the Pope for a brevet, by which no one shall be permitted to change his religion without first obtaining its consent! The government has a great aversion to the Protestants, and its partisans represent them as on a level with illuminati, Jacobins, terrorists, &c. &c.

The despotic turn of Bonaparte, and the arbitrary nature of his government, were doubted by none: but of the pains which he is said to have taken, and the schemes which he has devised to render slavery permanent, few perhaps are apprized. It is a material object of these pages, to make us believe in a systematic design, invariably pursued on his part, to banish knowlege and liberal ideas from his dominions, and to convert his subjects into a rude, ignorant, abject, superstitious, military horde. The curious information here given of the changes which he has made, in the plans of education projected in the course of the revolution, place this matter in a strong point of view, if credence may be allotted to the relations. It is stated that the central schools, designed for the provinces, are superseded by Lyceums; and that these are to be conducted on the plan of the old French schools, in which nothing was taught except Latin and Mathematics. In the regulations for these schools, published by the First Consul, the principal stress is laid on the instruction of the children in the military exercise; a military cast is given to every thing that relates to them; and the schools for the sons of French citizens will be in future nothing else but martial establishments. Where the seminaries have been instituted, the school-rooms are intolerably filthy, and the boys are dreadfully flogged and beaten. It is easy to see how well this plan is adapted to make them hate learning. Every school is to be divided into six forms, each of which is to be occupied during a year. All that is to be read in a year is to be compressed into one volume, and the master is on no account to use any other book. Each school is to have a library of 1500 volumes,

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lumes, which are to consist of the historical and mathematical works of the Jesuits. It was the dread of the prevalence of a liberal spirit, which made the Consul set aside the Institute, revive the four antient Academies, and abolish the class for moral philosophy, ethics, politics, and legislation. Thus all the splendid projects of the several leaders of the Revolution, for the improvement of the human mind, terminate in a wretched system which is to train up men for slavery at home, and to qualify them to be the instruments of carrying calamity and destruction among other nations.

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Art. VI. *History of the Insurrection of the County of Wexford, A.D.* 1798; including an Account of Transactions preceding that Event, with an Appendix. Embellished with an elegant Map of the County of Wexford. By Edward Hay, Esq., Member of the Royal Irish Academy. 8vo. pp. 504. 10s. 6d. Boards. Stockdale, Dublin: Cuthell, London. 1803.

The sad tale of the late Irish rebellion has already been more than once told; and the author of this volume has been anticipated by a violent party-spirited baronet*, and by a very respectable protestant clergyman †, the one priding himself on his virulence and bigotry, the other not only doing honour to his own character, but reflecting lustre on his sacred profession, by the candor and fairness of his narrative. In the present instance, the pen is assumed by a liberal and accomplished catholic; who, though of decided attachments in politics and religion, displays a large share of impartiality, and whom ill usage, scarcely credible, cannot induce to falsify history. If the result of his researches does not relieve the philanthropist; if his account, instead of diminishing, rather increases the sum total of those horrors, which not only disgrace Ireland, but the empire of which it forms a part, and the very age that witnessed the perpetration of them; it more fully consults distributive justice, and it more accurately assigns to the several authors their respective shares in those acts. Mr. Hay more amply sets forth the causes which led to the rebellion, and less cloaks the enormities on the part of the late government-faction which provoked it, as well as those that were practised subsequently to it, than had been done by his predecessors. Far be it from us to attempt to vindicate the deluded insurgents, who were rendered frantic by a treatment unknown

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* Sir R. Musgrave. See Rev. Vol. 37. N. S. 274.
† Mr. Gordon. See Rev. Vol. 37. N. S. 374.

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under modern civilized governments: but we would observe that their horrid excesses scarcely call forth greater detestation, than the cool deliberate malice which meditated and incessantly pursued their destruction: for it is here insinuated that Machiavelian policy anticipated the late dreadful storm, and, deeming it a process necessary to pave the way for certain measures which it had determined to carry *per fas et nefas*, had calculated on its result. Mr. Hay's narrative is on the whole able, luminous, and faithful: but it does not boast of peculiar literary merit, nor lay claim to a high finish of authorship. It by no means displays that felicity and perspicuity of style, that exquisite arrangement, those convenient breaks, those apt episodes judiciously introduced, which give dignity and interest even to low and ordinary subjects; and much more to one like the present, than which the ample and fertile page of history discloses nothing more instructive, more worthy of being studied by the practical politician.

The different parts of the work not admitting of much general criticism, we shall select, as specimens of the author's manner, a few of those passages which throw light on matters that have been less fully considered by his precursors. It may not be amiss, however, first to lay before our readers the account which he gives of himself, and which the scandalous and unmerited ill-treatment experienced by him not only justified, but absolutely required:

'My family have been established in Ireland since the reign of Henry the Second, as my ancestor came over with Strongbow, and was allotted a knight's share of lands in the southern part of the county of Wexford, which his descendants possessed until the revolution in Ireland about the middle of the seventeenth century, when there was but one estate in the whole county left unalienated by Cromwell. My ancestor had not the good fortune to be the person undisturbed; but he acquired a property in another part of the county, where his descendants have ever since resided. Born of catholic parents, and being reared in the principles of that religion, occasioned my banishment at an early age, for some years from my native country, as my parents wished to procure me a collegiate education in a foreign land, to which the rank and respectability of my family entitled me, but which the laws of my country denied me at home. After having pursued a course of study for several years in France and Germany, I returned to my native soil, fully sensible of my civil degradation as a catholic, and I therefore sought all the legal and constitutional means in my power in the pursuit of catholic emancipation.'

The author is far from thinking, with a witty senator, that the recall of a very respectable nobleman occasioned the Irish rebellion,

rebellion, in the same sense that the presence of Columbus in a western island caused the moon to appear under an eclipse to its inhabitants. He is of opinion that

'The removal of Lord Fitz William must ever be considered as one of the greatest misfortunes, that, in the revolution of ages, has befallen this devoted nation. It originated a train of calamitous circumstances, which the disclosing information of every day renders more and more lamentable to the friends of Ireland. The great majority of the people was insulted, public faith was violated; the cup of redress was dashed from the lips of expectation, and it cannot be wondered at that the anger of disappointment should have ensued. Had the healing balm been applied at the critical moment, the fever of commotion had long since passed its crisis. Had the benevolent measures, intended by that nobleman as the basis of his administration been effected, the rankling wounds of division and distraction were for ever closed, nor would the poison of prejudice and party-spirit still threaten convulsion and confusion; but harmony, confidence and peace would reign throughout the land.'

Numerous facts and considerations appear to us to justify the author in the position, that the rebellion in Wexford did not proceed from a pre-concerted plan, but was the effect of a sudden impulse; and this will not be considered as surprizing, when we duly reflect on the circumstances detailed in the passages which we are about to insert. Speaking of the disturbances in Ulster, in which the partisans of government were the actors, Mr. Hay informs us that

'Numbers went about in the night, searching houses, and taking away all the arms they could find, without violating any other property. This becoming generally known, the houses were usually opened upon the first summons. This easy mode of admittance was afterwards taken advantage of by common robbers; who at first only assumed the character of disarmers, to come at their prey with less trouble and more certainty. After a continued series of similar circumstances of violence and outrage, arising from a nation's greatest curse, the disunion of its people, but which our limits will not permit us to detail at present, General Lake issued his proclamation for disarming the inhabitants of the North of Ireland, on the 13th of March 1797; and on the 21st of the same month, Mr. Grattan, after a speech delivered with his usual force of talent and brilliant ability, moved for an inquiry into the causes which produced this proclamation; but his motion was unfortunately rejected The persecutions in the county of Armagh were so flagrant, and the conduct of many of the magistrates so contrary to law, that applications were made to the court of king's bench, for attachments against several of them, but a bill of indemnity prevented a judicial investigation of their conduct; and thus they were screened from merited punishment. This total disregard of their grievances, and inattention to their complaints, added to the barbarous outrages afterwards committed by the military in the northern counties, very much exas-

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perated the feelings of the suffering party. They resorted for temporary relief to private sorrow and secret lamentation. In this sad state, bordering on despair, every injured person sympathized with his neighbour in affliction, and their united resentments, like a raging flame, suppressed, but not extinguished, were the more likely to burst forth with sudden fury, and unexpected violence. It may not be impertinent to remark, that in all cases of popular commotion, an inquiry into the alledged grievances ought to go hand in hand with the measures of rigour and coercion. These two principles are far from being incompatible, and any government acting upon them must be certain of conciliating obedience and affection, respect and attachment.'

Having paid a glowing tribute to Generals Abercromby and Hutchinson, which in the eyes of the benevolent and the wise exalts those heroic benefactors of their country much higher than the well-earned laurels gained by their bravery and conduct; the author says:

'Immediately on the departure of General Abercromby, the military were sent out at free quarters, in the county of Kildare, and parts of the counties of Carlow and Wicklow. What hardships, what calamity, what misery must not the wretched people suffer, on whom were let loose such a body as the soldiery then in Ireland are described to be in the general orders before alluded to of the 26th of April, 1798?—They became masters of every house in the country, the real owners were obliged to procure them every necessary they thought proper to demand; and, as their will was then the only law, and a very imperious and tyrannical law it was, the people dare not, except at the risque of their lives, complain of any outrage or brutality of which their savage disposition prompted them to be guilty. The inevitable consequence was, that such horrid acts were perpetrated, such shocking scenes were exhibited, as must rouse the indignation, and provoke the abhorence of all not dead to humane feeling, or not barbarised by unnatural hatred of their fellow-creatures!'

The county of Wexford, not many months preceding the rebellion, was regarded as one of the most peaceable in Ireland: it had fewer United Irishmen than most others; and it did not labour under the nearly equal curse of having many Orangemen. This new class of friends to regular government, who supported lawful authority and social order by taking away the lives, destroying the property, and by torturing and ill-treating the persons of their fellow subjects, are here represented as the immediate and sole causes of the rebellion; and the extension of them is ascribed to the North Cork militia, commanded by Lord Kingsborough, who came there in April 1798.

'In this regiment, there were a great number of Orangemen, who were zealous in making proselytes, and displaying their devices; having medals and orange ribbons triumphantly pendant from their bosoms.

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bosoms. It is believed, that previous to this period, there were but few actual Orangemen in the county; but soon after, those whose principles inclined that way, finding themselves supported by the military, joined the association, and publicly avowed themselves by assuming the devices of the fraternity.

'It is said, that the North Cork regiment were also the inventors —but they certainly were the introducers, of pitch-cap torture into the county of Wexford. Any person having their hair cut short, (and therefore called a croppy, by which appellation the soldier designated an United Irishman,) on being pointed out by some loyal neighbour, was immediately seized and brought into a guard house, where caps, either of coarse linen or strong brown paper, besmeared inside with pitch, were always kept ready for service. The unfortunate victim had one of these well heated, compressed on his head, and when judged of a proper degree of coolness, so that it could not be easily pulled off, the sufferer was turned out amidst the horrid acclamations of the merciless torturers; and to the view of vast numbers of people, who generally crowded about the guard house door, attracted by the afflicting cries of the tormented. Many of those persecuted in this manner, experienced additional anguish, from the melted pitch trickling into their eyes. This afforded a rare addition of enjoyment to these keen sportsmen, who reiterated their horrid yells of exultation, on the repetition of the several accidents to which their game was liable upon being turned out; for in the confusion and hurry of escaping from the ferocious hands of these more than savage barbarians, the blinded victims frequently fell, or inadvertently dashed their heads against the walls in their way. The pain of disengaging this pitched cap from the head must be next to intolerable. The hair was often torn out by the roots, and not unfrequently parts of the skin were so scalded or blistered as to adhere and come off along with it. The terror and dismay that these outrages occasioned are inconceivable. A serjeant of the North Cork, nicknamed *Tom the Devil*, was most ingenious in devising new modes of torture. Moistened gunpowder was frequently rubbed into the hair, cut close, and then set on fire; some, while shearing for this purpose, had the tips of their ears snipt off; sometimes an entire ear, and often both ears were completely cut off; and many lost part of their noses during the like preparation. But, strange to tell, these atrocities were publicly practised, without the least reserve, in open day, and no magistrate or officer ever interfered, but shamefully connived at this extraordinary mode of quieting the people!—Some of the miserable sufferers on these shocking occasions, or some of their relations or friends actuated by a principle of retaliation, if not of revenge, cut short the hair, of several persons whom they either considered as enemies or suspected of having pointed them out as objects for such desperate treatment. This was done with a view that those active citizens should fall in for a little experience of the like discipline,—or to make the fashion of short hair so general that it might no longer be a mark of party distinction. Females were also exposed to the grossest insults from these military ruffians. Many women had their petticoats, handkerchiefs, caps, ribbons, and all parts of their dress that exhi-

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bited a shade of green (considered the national colour of Ireland) torn off, and their ears assailed by the most vile and indecent ribaldry. This was a circumstance so unforeseen, and of course so little provided against, that many women of enthusiastic loyalty suffered outrage in this manner. Some of these ladies would not on any account have worn any thing which they could even imagine partook in any degree of *croppyism*. They were, however, unwarily involved until undeceived by these gentle hints from these kind guardians of allegiance.'

The county of Wexford was proclaimed by an order of the assembled magistrates on the 27th of April 1798; from which period forwards,

'Many magistrates of the county made themselves conspicuous in practising the summary mode of quieting the country, by the infliction of all kinds of torture. They seem, indeed, to have emulated or rather rivalled the conduct of the magistrates of other counties, who had made trial of the *salutary* effects of persecution somewhat sooner. In the several neighbourhoods of Ross, Enniscorthy, and Gorey, the people suffered most, as in each of these towns a magistrate started up eager for the glorious distinction of outstripping all others, each by his own superior deeds of death, deflagration and torture! but it is to be observed, that none of these men had ever before possessed either talents or respectability sufficient to entitle him to take a leading part; yet, if burning houses, whipping and half hanging numbers, hanging some all out, and shooting others, with attendant attrocities, constitute the characteristic of loyal and good magistrates, they must be allowed strong claim to eminence.'

The author animadverts with great spirit, and just severity, on these detestable proceedings, and thus concludes:

'I am firmly persuaded that the conduct of the magistrates before alluded to (and of some others not entitled to quite so much renown in this cause,) supported by the yeomen under their controul, together with the co-operation of the military, occasioned or rather forced the rising of the people in the county of Wexford.'

It is asserted by Mr. Hay that the stand made by the insurgents, and all the consequent calamities and devastations, were owing to cowardice; and that afterward many of those who basely ran away, and even several who took part with the insurgents, became more active in persecuting such men as deserted by those who were invested with authority, had been left to the mercy of the rebels, yet, by their prudent and temperate conduct, had saved numbers of lives, and had prevented the town from destruction. He justly observes that the military and civil authorities, by offering formally to surrender the town to the insurgents, had recognized them as regular enemies, and ought to have treated them accordingly. If the commander in chief was not bound to ratify the treaty into which Lord Kingsborough had entered with the town, and was still

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still less obliged to extend it to the camp, we believe that it would have been equally consistent with policy and with humanity to have acted in that manner. At all events, if the strictness of General Lake must be regarded as the proper line to be pursued, the Noble Lord had no alternative left, but that of returning himself into the custody of those who had released him.

The conduct of the judicial proceedings, the excesses of the troops, and the outrages committed by the yeomen, exhibit scenes as disgraceful as those which were chargeable on the rebellious multitude. Were a comparison to be instituted between the abominations committed on both sides,—a task which we beg leave to decline,—it would be difficult to determine against which it is that the mind most revolts. Justice, humanity, and every social tie were on each side equally violated. If most of those, who in such numbers have irretrievably tarnished their reputation, are too obscure and insignificant to suffer from the memorials of history, they may depend on it that their names, wherever mentioned among the subjects of this enlightened empire, will excite but one sentiment, that of confirmed detestation. Still there are bright passages in the history of these commotions. The virtuous and the humane will dwell with heart-felt pleasure on the exertions of a Fitzwilliam, of a Moira, and of a Fox, to arrest the torrent of calamity before it overran that unhappy country; the generous will peruse with kindred feeling the declarations of an Abercromby and of a Hutchinson, will do justice to the perseverance of a Cornwallis, and will applaud the noble clemency of a Moore and a Hunter; and memory will not easily relinquish a Sir James Fowlis, and a brigade-major Fitz-Gerald, who raised a name for justice and humanity, at a period and in scenes in which the ~~foulest~~ and most inveterate passions of our nature raged with uncontrouled fury. Blackest

We can easily believe that many of the leaders of the rebels were forced to assume that character, but we cannot credit this supposition to the extent for which Mr. Hay contends. This is the part, namely, the account of the character and views of the rebel leaders, which is least satisfactory in the volume before us. Fortunately, however, Mr. Gordon's narrative supplies this defect; and indeed, by means of the united labours of these respectable authors, the reader will be able to form a very just notion of the lamentable insurrection in the county of Wexford.

Jo.

ART.

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ART. VII. *Euclidis Elementorum Libri Priores XII. Ex Commandini et Gregorii Versionibus Latinis. In usum Juventutis Academicæ. Edidit, pluribus in locis auxit, et in depravatis emendavit* Samuel, *Episcopus Roffensis.* 8vo. 9s. 6d. Boards. Payne and M'Inlay.

THE first part of this course was published in English, and has already been noticed by us *: but the present, and a third volume on Euclid's data, logarithms, &c. are composed in Latin. In the beginning of the preface, on which the Right Reverend author has bestowed considerable attention, he explains the cause of his departure from the ordinary plan of preceding editors, who have been contented to publish the first six books, with the eleventh and twelfth. The slight censure, however, on the supposed opinion of these editors, and the concomitant assertion that the truth or evidence of the rules of Algebra depends on the Elements of Geometry, do not please us: in other words, we do not regard the censure and the assertion as just and proper.

In the first six books, and in the 11th and 12th, the Bishop has followed the text of Commandine, as edited by Keil; and of the four intermediate books, the text is taken from Gregory's Latin version, corrected and amended: these corrections and emendations being many and important.

In the 5th book, the learned editor not only changes the order of the definitions, but rejects the 7th, and instead of it substitutes one, *quæ Veterum Geometrarum magis saperet.*

'*Prima ad secundam major esse dicitur quam in proportione tertia ad quartam (vel ad secundam majorem proportionem habere quam tertia ad quartam) quando minor aliqua quam prima ad secundam proportionem habet eandem, quam tertia ad quartam.*'

The R. R. author defends this alteration, and refutes an imagined objection against his definition, viz. that it is not evident that a less quantity exists, having to the second the same proportion which the third bears to the fourth; and his defence chiefly rests on the authority of Euclid, who himself takes for granted a truth of the same nature. For instance, in the 2d proposition of the 12th book, Euclid says; "As the square of *BD* is to the square of *FH*, so is the circle *ABCD* to the circle *EFGH*: for, if it be not so, the square of *BD* shall be to the square of *FH*, as the circle *ABCD* is to some space either *less than* the circle *ABCD*, or *greater than* it," &c.

'*Sed ut intra ea,* (says the Bishop) *quæ latius patent, diutius me non cominear,* hoc ipsum, *quod in definitione nostrâ* pro concesso sumi-

* See Rev. Vol. 36. N. S. p. 408.

tur,

tur, *ab* EUCLIDE IPSO *quoque* pro concesso sumptum est, *ubi in secundæ et aliarum Libri duodecimi propositionum demonstratione versatur; sicut et alios omnes facere necesse est, quotiescunque per* Exhaustionum *methodum, aliquid ponere volunt, aut certum esse ostendere; cum istius methodi principium et origo, illud nimirum sine quo nulla omnino esset, hoc ipsum sit, quod et nos in definitione nostrâ usurpavimus. Unde obiter quoque notandum, quam inominato nonnulli e Libro quinto propositionum decimæ octavæ et aliarum quarundam demonstrationes sustulerint, quales in* Commandini *Editione juxta* THEONEM *extant, et alias earum loco induxerint, non efficaciores, tædii autem et moliminis longe majoris. Et de his quidem hactenus.*'

Bishop Horsley conceives that the third definition is properly introduced; and consequently he dissents from the opinion of Barrow and Simson, who deemed this definition useless, as being metaphysical, and subservient to no mathematical purpose. Since the words "same ratio," or proportion, occur in the fifth definition, it is as well, perhaps, to give some general notion of ratio itself: but the omission of this definition does not appear to us a mathematical sin that cries to Heaven for vengeance. On this head, we think, the editor is impressive with unnecessary force.

The following passage, which terminates the preface, contains the Bishop's opinion of Robert Simson:

'Corollaria, Lemmata, *et* Scholia, *quæ locis innumeris in hâc nostrâ Euclidis Editione interjecta sunt, et quæ in receptis editionibus non inveneris, sive ex aliis desumpta, sive a nobis concinnata, asterismo notantur. Quibus auctoris nomen non adscribitur, ea omnia a nobis profecta sunt. Quæcunque autem sint ea, vel quales quales, quæ in Editione hâc nostrâ fecimus emendationes, ducem in plerisque eorum* SIMSONUM *certissime non secuti sumus; propter quod a nonnullis satis certo improbabimur, ab aliis fortasse, ut fieri solet, diversum experiemur judicium. Aliud interea nobis propositum fuit, et aliud unice in Euclide emendando, Euclide ipso duntaxat magistro uti, per omnia intueri eum, et ad illius mentem, quantum fieri potuit, omnia componere. Porro autem, licet in eandem cum nobis arenam descenderit, cum* SIMSONO *multoties non sentimus; ubique non astipulamur ejus de aliis Elementorum Editoribus judicio; quin et ex iis etiam quæ Operi suo inseruit, supervacanea nonnulla, aut infructuosa, impedita alia, et æquo longiora nobis semper visa sunt. Immo hoc ipsum erat, ut rem non diffitear, quod primo omnium ad Opus hoc nostrum excitavit nos, et tandem aliquando etiam ad conficiendum impulit—certa nimirum neque unquam immutata opinio, Euclidem a* SIMSONO *sermone Anglico donatum Juventutis Academicæ institutioni non sufficere, aut satis fideliter Veterum Geometrarum methodum, quæ nunquam non ἀκριβεστάτη est, iis in conspectu ponere. Sed neque interea quoque, in egregii istius Viri exercitationibus, non confitemur iidem inesse multa et artificii singularis, et exquisitæ elegantiæ, quibus apertam quam nactus est feliciter ornavit, et unde laudem sibi jure adeptus est non mediocrem. Valeas, Lector, et quæ tibi in manus tradita sunt, æqui bonique consulas.*'

The

The 12th Axiom, concerning parallel lines, a subject which has caused so many investigations, is retained; and at the end of the 28th proposition, Dr. H. gives what he calls a demonstration of it. Our astonishment during the perusal of this proof was not small. That a mathematician, a stickler for ακριβεια; who severely censures the accurate Robert Simson for inac uracy; and who had before him, on the subject of parallel lines, the learned and ingenious argumentations of that geometer, with the strict deductions and acute observations of Playfair and Ingram; should have so grossly paralogized, is indeed wonderful. If any meaning, by which we may arrive at a conclusion, is to be attached to the author's words, the very thing which is the object of proof is supposed. In fact, a mystical word, *deflectitur*, is introduced: but by what spell and potent charm that term is to produce the meeting of two lines, drawn according to the conditions of the axiom, we are utterly unable to conjecture. With this specimen of the Right Reverend author's mathematical acuteness in our view, we listen with a great disposition to incredulity to his unsupported censure of Simson.

We shall consider the 3d vol. in another article. R.W.

ART. VIII. *Scenes of Infancy:* descriptive of Teviotdale. By John Leyden. 12mo. pp. 184. 6s. Boards. Longman and Rees.

THE charms of local attachment are peculiarly congenial to descriptive and pathetic poetry. With the scenes of our first home, we identify the real or fancied happiness of careless childhood, and the warm and abiding impression of new existence. The very circumstance of their individuality clothes them with interest, and trains of tender associations endear them to our hearts. In proportion to the extensive influence of local predilections, has that influence been illustrated and embellished by writers of taste and sensibility. The theme is truly attractive: but repetition has rendered it familiar. In painting our favourite haunts, we should, therefore, have recourse to varied if not to original colouring; we should lay hold of peculiar incidents or sentiments connected with the subject; and, above all, we should select the most prominent and characteristic features, and touch them at once with delicacy and boldness. Every thing of a vague and general complexion should be studiously avoided, and the physical and moral aspect of the district alone brought into view. Minute and tedious description, also, though it may be tolerated, or even re-

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lished by a native of the country which is delineated, will, in the judgment of the impartial, weaken the effect of a sketch that may be pronounced faultless in every other respect.

In so far as the present writer has been guided by these views, he claims our most sincere approbation. In the conduct of his poem, however, we occasionally remark the want of a regular progress of thought, and of appropriate pictures and images. The effusion which professes to recall the days of playful innocence, and to celebrate pastoral life as it is exhibited on the banks of the Teviot, should breathe simplicity and sweetness, unmixed with remote digressions or pedantic allusions. The performance, though in various respects highly creditable to the author's reputation, is needlessly prolonged, and sometimes presents us with learning when we looked for feeling.

Of the four parts into which this poem is rather unnecessarily divided, the first is the most interesting, and is pleasingly heightened by the concluding address to Aurelia:

'Ah! dear Aurelia! when this arm shall guide
Thy twilight steps no more by Teviot's side,
When I, to pine in eastern realms, have gone,
And years have passed, and thou remain'st alone,
Wilt thou, still partial to thy youthful flame,
Regard the turf, where first I carved thy name,
And think thy wanderer, far beyond the sea,
False to his heart, was ever true to thee?
Why bend, so sad, that kind, regretful view,
As every moment were my last adieu?
Ah! spare that tearful look, 'tis death to see,
Nor break the tortured heart that bleeds for thee!
That snowy cheek, that moist and gelid brow,
Those quivering lips, that breathe the unfinished vow,
These eyes, that still with dimming tears o'erflow,
Will haunt me, when thou canst not see my woe.
Not yet, with fond but self-accusing pain,
Mine eyes, reverted, linger o'er the main;
But, sad, as he that dies in early spring,
When flowers begin to blow, and larks to sing,
When Nature's joy a moment warms his heart,
And makes it doubly hard with life to part,
I hear the whispers of the dancing gale,
And, fearful, listen for the flapping sail,
Seek, in these natal shades, a short relief,
And steal a pleasure from maturing grief.
'Yes! in these shades, this fond, adoring mind
Had hoped, in thee, a dearer self to find,
Still from thy form some lurking grace to glean,
And wonder, it so long remained unseen;
Hoped, those seducing graces might impart
Their native sweetness to this sterner heart,

While

While those dear eyes, in pearly light that shine,
Fond thought! should borrow manlier beams from mine.
Ah! fruitless hope of bliss, that ne'er shall be!
Shall but this lonely heart survive to me?
No! in the temple of my purer mind,
Thine imaged form shall ever live enshrined,
And hear the vows, to first affection due,
Still breathed—for love, that ceases, ne'er was true.'

The ensuing lines are conceived in the true spirit of poetical romance:

'The waning harvest moon shone cold and bright;
The warder's horn was heard at dead of night;
And, as the massy portals wide were flung,
With stamping hoofs the rocky pavement rung.
What fair, half-veiled, leans from her latticed hall,
Where red the wavering gleams of torch-light fall?
'Tis Yarrow's fairest flower, who, through the gloom,
Looks, wistful, for her lover's dancing plume.'

The apostrophe to the nightingale is also worthy of quotation:

'Sweet bird! how long shall Teviot's maids deplore
Thy song, unheard along her woodland shore?
In southern groves thou charm'st the starry night,
Till darkness seems more lovely far than light;
But still, when vernal April wakes the year,
Nought save the echo of thy song we hear.
The lover, lingering by some ancient pile,
When moonlight meads in dewy radiance smile,
Starts, at each woodnote wandering through the dale,
And fondly hopes he hears the nightingale.
O! if those tones, of soft enchanting swell,
Be more than dreams, which fabling poets tell;
If e'er thy notes have charmed away the tear
From Beauty's eye, or mourned o'er Beauty's bier;
Waste not the softness of thy notes in vain,
But pour, in Dena's vale, thy sweetest strain!'

Mr. Leyden is very fond of the epithet *sweet*: but the finest word in the language, if too often introduced, ceases to please. *Ezlar* is more than once applied to rocks. *Ashlar* is a term used by masons to denote stones as they come from the quarry. We are likewise informed that *ashlar-work* is, in Scotland, synonymous with hewn or smoothed work. *Rowans* is Scotish for the berries of the mountain-ash. *The pipe and bladder* is no very happy periphrasis for the *bag pipe*. *Drake* is the male of the duck, and not a *dragon*. *Moss*, in the sense of *morass*, is Scotish; and Mr. L. must *waddle* out of it as he best can.

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The versification is, for the most part, abundantly smooth: but *Ruberslaw* is a sound peculiarly harsh; and such lines as these require softening:

'And shuts each shrinking star's refulgent eye.'
'The dark winged Erne impetuous glanced to view.'
'Reared the huge piles by Nile's broad moon horned flood.'
'Roxburgh! how fallen, since first, in Gothic pride.'

A modest allowance of explanatory notes is subjoined; and the volume is handsomely printed: but, independently of decorations and patronage, it deserves a place on the shelf of poetical readers.

Muir.

ART IX. *Elements of Science and Art:* being a familiar Introduction to Natural Philosophy and Chemistry. Together with their Application to a variety of elegant and useful Arts. By John Imison. A new Edition, considerably enlarged, and adapted to the improved State of Science. 8vo. 2 Vols. 11. 5s. Boards. Harding, &c.

THE first edition of this work was noticed by us in a brief article*: but it is now so greatly enlarged that we have viewed it as a new production; and we think that its merits are considerable. Though, however, we have perused it with considerable satisfaction, yet we find that it is one of those books on which we have little critically to comment: since no new theories are advanced in it, and no received opinions are controverted. Perhaps every thing which it contains is to be found elsewhere; and we presume that the author does not claim the praise of having propounded new matter, but that of perspicuous and dextrous arrangement, and of having judiciously drawn from each department of science and art its proportionate share, suitably to the object of his publication.

In order to shew how wide a scope he has taken, we subjoin the general heads. Vol. I. Mechanics, Pneumatics, Hydrostatics, Hydraulics, Optics, Electricity, Galvanism, Magnetism, Astronomy. Vol. II Chemistry, Drawing, Mechanical Means for copying Drawings, Bleaching, Dyeing, Calico Printing, Tanning, Refining Metals, Pottery, Manufactures of Glass, Varnishing, Japaning, Bronzing, Lacquering, Gilding, Silvering, Tinning, Soldering, Moulding and Casting, Cements, Ink Making, Removing Stains, Staining Wood, Miscellaneous Articles. From this enumeration, it is plain that there is very little in Science and Art on which he does not touch: much evidently

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* See M. Rev. N. S. Vol. lxxiii. p. 394.

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cannot be said on each, but what is given is stated properly and judiciously. The articles of Electricity and Astronomy, however, still occupying the same number of pages, might have been made to convey to the reader more useful information: at present they are rather trifling; certainly not the best in the book. Its multifarious information must render this compilation useful and entertaining: though if a person wishes to enter profoundly into the science of mechanics, he will not here find sufficient information; or if in chemistry he desires to rival Vauquelin and Berthollet, he must have recourse to other treatises; or if he purposes to submit to the test of practice the principles of dyeing, he must seek for works more particular in method and detail. To excite curiosity, however, in the youthful mind,—for the use of those whose occupations preclude them from deep researches,—or for those who, profoundly skilled in one particular department of science or literature, wish not to be ignorant of the rules and principles which prevail in other branches,—these volumes are well adapted, and may be very convenient.

As specimens, we select the two following passages:

'WHEEL-CARRIAGES.

'It is very probable, that in the infancy of the arts, sledges were used before wheels were invented, or at least before the application of them became general. Even now, indeed, sledges are employed for certain purposes in our own country, notwithstanding the number of wheel-carriages used in it from time immemorial.

'In some of the cold climates, where ice is to be met with in considerable quantity, and the ground is covered with frozen snow for a great part of the year, sledges are much in use, and run upon the smooth surface of the earth with as great ease as wheels run upon the ordinary ground. Upon very smooth ice, indeed, or upon any other body perfectly smooth, wheels would not turn readily; for the only reason why they turn in the ordinary way is the continual inequalities they meet with.

'On common roads, wheels meet with obstructions at the bottom, which retard that part; the upper part is in consequence drawn forward, and a circulating motion takes place.

'The advantage of wheels over sledges may be understood from the following considerations: A sledge, in sliding over a plane suffers a friction equivalent to the distance through which it moves; but if we apply to it an axle, the circumference of which is six inches, and that of the wheels eighteen feet, it is plain that when the carriage moves eighteen feet over the plane, the wheels make but one revolution; and as there is no sliding of parts between the plane and the wheels, but only a mere change of surface, no friction can take place there, the whole being transferred to the nave acting on the axle; so that the only sliding of parts has been betwixt the inside of the nave and the axle; which, if they fit one another exactly, is no

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no more than six inches, and hence it is plain, that the friction must be reduced in the proportion of one to thirty-six. Another advantage is also gained, by having the surfaces confined to so small an extent; by which means they may be more easily kept smooth, and fitted to each other. The only inconvenience is the height of the wheels, which must in all cases be added to that of the carriage itself.

'By means of this circulatory motion, the friction becomes very much less than what it would be if the weight were drawn along the ground upon a sledge; insomuch, that a four-wheeled carriage may be drawn with five times as much ease as one that slides upon the same surface as a sledge.

'By applying wheels to a carriage, the friction is lessened, in the proportion of the diameters of the axles and hollow parts of the naves to that of the wheels.

'Large wheels have also the advantage over small ones in overcoming obstacles, because they act as levers, in proportion to their various sizes. All wheels, but especially small ones, are apt to sink into the ground over which they pass, and thus produce a constant obstacle to their progress, which the large ones most easily overcome.

'In all four-wheeled carriages, the fore-wheels are made of a less size than the hind ones, in order to enable them to turn in less room; but the carriage would go much easier, if the fore-wheels were as high as the hind ones.

'It is plain, that the small wheels must turn as much oftener round than the great ones, as their circumferences are less. And, therefore, when the carriage is loaded equally heavy on both axles, the fore-axle must sustain as much more friction, and consequently wear out as much sooner than the hind axle, as the fore-wheels are less than the hind ones. And though this points out that the greatest weight should be laid upon the large wheels, yet it is generally the practice to put the greatest load over the small wheels, which not only makes the friction greatest where it should be least, but also presses the fore-wheels deeper into the ground than the hind wheels, notwithstanding the former are with more difficulty drawn out of it than the latter.

'It is true, that when the road is much up-hill, there is danger in loading too much the hind wheels, lest the fore-wheels should be tilted up.

'Every one knows what an outcry was raised by the generality, if not the whole body, of the carriers, against the broad wheel act; and how hard it was to persuade them to comply with it, even though they were allowed to draw with more horses, and carry greater loads than usual. Their principal objection was, that as a broad wheel must touch the ground in a great many more points than a narrow one, the friction must, of course, be just so much the greater, and consequently there must be so many more horses to draw the waggon. But they did not consider, that if the whole weight of the waggon and the load in it bear upon a great many points, each sustains a proportionally less degree of weight and friction, than when it bears only upon a few points; so that what is wanting in one, is made up in the

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other; and therefore the friction will be just equal under equal degrees of weight, as may be shewn by the following easy experiment:

'Let one end of a piece of packthread be fastened to a brick, and the other end to a common scale for holding weights; then put the brick edgeways on the table, and let the scale hang over the side; put as much weight into the scale as will just draw the brick along the table. Then taking back the brick to its former place, lay it *flat*, and leave it to be acted on by the weight in the scale as before, and it will draw it along with the same ease as when it lay upon its edge. In the former case, the brick may be considered as a narrow wheel, on the ground, and in the latter as a broad wheel. And since the brick is drawn along with equal ease, whether its broad side or narrow edge touch the table, it shews that a broad wheel might be drawn along the ground with the same ease as a narrow one (supposing them equally heavy) even though they should drag, and not roll, as they go along.

'As narrow wheels are always sinking into the roads, they must be considered as constantly going up hill, even on level ground; and their sides must sustain a great deal of friction by rubbing against the ruts. But both these inconveniences are avoided by using broad wheels; which, instead of cutting and ploughing up the roads, roll them smooth, and harden them, as experience testifies in places where they have been used.

'If the wheels were always to go upon smooth and level ground, the best way would be to make the spokes perpendicular to the naves and to the axles; because they would then bear the weight of the load perpendicularly, which is the strongest way for wood. But because the ground is generally uneven, one wheel often falls into a cavity, or rut, when the other does not; and then it bears much more of the weight than the other does; in which case, concave, or dishing-wheels, are best; because, when one falls into a rut, and the other keeps upon high ground, the spokes become perpendicular in the rut, and therefore have the greatest strength when the obliquity of the load throws most of its weight upon them; whilst those on the high ground have less weight to bear, and therefore need not be at their full strength; so that the usual way of making the wheels concave is best.'

'*Principles of Dyeing.*

'The substances commonly employed for clothing may be reduced to four; namely, wool, silk, cotton and linen.

'Permanent alterations in the colour of cloth can only be induced two ways; either by producing a chemical change in the cloth, or by covering its fibres with some substance which posesses the wished-for colour. Recourse can seldom or never be had to the first method, because it is hardly possible to produce a chemical change in the fibres of cloth without spoiling its texture and rendering it useless. The dyer, therefore, when he wishes to give a new colour to cloth, has always recourse to the second method.

'The substances employed for this purpose are called *colouring matters*, or *dye stuffs*. They are for the most part extracted from animal

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and vegetable substances, and have usually the colour which they intend to give to the cloth.

'Since the particles of colouring matter with which cloth, when dyed, is covered, are transparent, it follows, that all the light reflected from dyed cloth must be reflected, not by the dye stuff itself, but by the fibres of the cloth below the dye stuff. The colour therefore does not depend upon the dye alone, but also upon the previous colour of the cloth. If the cloth be *black*, it is clear that we cannot dye it any other colour whatever; because as no light in that case is reflected, none can be transmitted, whatever dye stuff we employ. If the cloth were red, or blue, or yellow, we could not dye it any colour except black; because, as only red, or blue, or yellow rays were reflected, no other could be transmitted. Hence the importance of a fine white colour, when cloth is to receive bright dyes. It then reflects all the rays in abundance, and therefore any colour may be given, by covering it with a dye stuff which transmits only some particular rays.

'If the colouring matters were merely spread over the surface of the fibres of cloth by the dyer, the colours produced might be very bright, but they could not be permanent; because the colouring matter would be very soon rubbed off; and would totally disappear whenever the cloth was washed, or even barely exposed to the weather. The colouring matter then, however perfect a colour it possesses, is of no value unless it also adheres so firmly to the cloth that none of the substances usually applied to cloth, in order to clean it, &c. can displace it. Now this can only happen, when there is a strong *affinity* between the colouring matter and the cloth, and when they are actually combined together in consequence of that affinity.

'Dyeing then is merely a chemical process, and consists in combining a certain colouring matter with fibres of cloth. This process can in no instance be performed, unless the dye stuff be first reduced to its integrant particles; for the attraction of aggregation between the particles of dye stuffs is too great to be overcome by the affinity between them and the cloth unless they could be brought within much smaller distances than is possible while they both remain in a solid form. It is necessary, therefore, previously to dissolve the colouring matter in some liquid or other, which has a weaker affinity for it than the cloth has. When the cloth is dipped into this solution, the colouring matter, reduced by this contrivance to a liquid state, is brought within the attracting distance; the cloth therefore acts upon it, and from its stronger affinity, takes it from the solvent, and fixes it upon itself. By this contrivance too, the equality of the colour is in some measure secured, as every part of the cloth has an opportunity of attracting to itself the proper proportion of colouring particles.

'The facility with which cloth imbibes a dye, depends upon two things; namely, the affinity between the cloth and the dye stuff, and the affinity between the dye stuff and its solvent. It is directly as the former, and inversely as the latter. It is of importance to preserve a due proportion between these two affinities, as upon that proportion much of the accuracy of dyeing depends. If the affinity between the colouring matter and the cloth be too great, compared with the affinity between the colouring matter and the solvent, the cloth will take the

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dye too rapidly, and it will be scarcely possible to prevent its colour from being unequal. On the other hand, if the affinity between the colouring matter and the solvent be too great, compared with that between the colouring matter and the cloth, the cloth will either not take the colour at all, or it will take it very slowly and very faintly.

'Wool has the strongest affinity for almost all colouring matters, silk the next strongest, cotton a considerably weaker affinity, and linen the weakest affinity of all. Therefore in order to dye cotton or linen, the dye stuff should in many cases be dissolved in a substance for which it has a weaker affinity than for the solvent employed in the dyeing of wool or silk. Thus we may use oxyde of iron dissolved in sulphuric acid, in order to dye wool; but for cotton and linen, it is better to dissolve it in acetous acid.

'Were it possible to procure a sufficient number of colouring matters, having a strong affinity for cloth, to answer all the purposes of dyeing, that art would be exceedingly simple and easy. But this is by no means the case; if we except indigo, the dyer is scarcely possessed of a dye stuff which yields of itself a good colour, sufficiently permanent to deserve the name of a dye.

'This difficulty, which at first sight appears insurmountable, has been obviated by a very ingenious contrivance. Some substance is pitched upon, which has a strong affinity, both for the cloth and the colouring matter. This substance is previously combined with cloth, which is then dipped into the solution containing the dye stuff. The dye stuff combines with the intermediate substance, which, being firmly combined with the cloth, secures the permanence of the dye. Substances employed for this purpose are denominated *Mordants*.

'The most important part of dyeing is undoubtedly the proper choice and the proper application of mordants; as upon them the permanency of almost every dye depends. Every thing which has been said respecting the application of colouring matters, applies equally to the application of mordants. They must be previously dissolved in some liquid, which has a weaker affinity to them than the cloth has, to which they are to be applied; and the cloth must be dipped, or even steeped in this solution, in order to saturate itself with the mordant.'

Numerous plates are added, illustrative of the various subjects; and a general Index is given with the second volume. R.W.

ART. X. *Senilities*; or, Solitary Amusements: in Prose and Verse: with a cursory Disquisition on the future Condition of the Sexes. By the Rev. Wm. Graves, Editor of The Reveries of Solitude, Spiritual Quixote, Columella, &c. Crown 8vo. pp. 315. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co.

WHEN, in the course of our literary labours, we recognize an old acquaintance, whom we have for many years been in the habit of esteeming, we feel pleasure similar to that which is produced by the unexpected meeting of friends after a long

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a long and lamented separation. Such is the effect which we at present experience from the perusal of this production of the Rev. Mr. Graves; whom we now once more introduce to the notice and approbation of the public. Whatever the modesty of Mr. G. may intend to intimate by the term '*Senilities*,' we have the pleasure of saying that there is no part of the volume, from which we should have drawn any unfavourable conclusions respecting the mental decline of the author, or in which we should even have perceived the infirmities naturally incident to his venerable age. The preface is written in his usual manner, with much ease and pleasantry; and he tells us that, as the tedious preachers in Charles the Second's time, when the congregation began to be tired after two hours' listening, would say "*once more* and I have done;" so we may rest assured that this publication is on his part "positively the last time of performing." We believe that there has seldom (if ever) been such an instance of performers of this kind retaining their skill and power to please at the advanced period of 86; and we trust that he will avail himself of a common precedent, and appear more last times than one.

The first half of this volume consists of short essays on different subjects, which are treated partly in a serious and partly in a jocose manner. At the head of these stands the disquisition announced in the title-page, 'on the future condition of neglected virgins.'—As Mr. Graves is a clergyman, there is the more propriety in his discussing any curious question in theology: but on this subject he differs from St. Hilary, Dr. Priestley, and others; and in such a discordancy of opinion among learned divines, on so intricate a point, we shall not have the presumption to offer our opinion, nor to act as umpire between the parties. We shall, however, give our fair readers some idea of the matter under discussion.—The certainty of a future state, Mr. G. contends, is demonstrable from the very nature and condition of man in this transitory world; and he justly observes that, in respect to the particulars of that state, all is uncertain and merely conjectural. From some hints, nevertheless, which the scriptures afford, he concludes that the same sentiments and affections, though purified and refined from all earthly grossness, will subsist hereafter; and that they will contribute, as in this life, though in a far more exalted manner, to the social endearments of the blessed. Hence he infers that there will also be a sexual distinction in another world, notwithstanding our Saviour's remark that "in heaven they neither marry nor are given in marriage."

'St. Paul, indeed, mentions a considerable *change* which the human frame will undergo on that awful occasion: that "it is sown in corruption,

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ruption, it is raised in incorruption, it is sown in weakness, it is raised in power," it is sown a natural, or merely *animal* body, it is raised a spiritual, or spiritualized body: But he no where says, that a female body will be raised a male, or a male a female body. And if there is to be only one sex, the ladies surely have as good a claim to that exclusive privilege as the men have. Nay as we are to have bodies of some kind or other, and "are to be as the *angels* in heaven;" the fair sex, in their immaculate purity and virgin innocence, certainly approach nearer to our present ideas of those angelic beings than the males do.

'In short, "every seed," as St. Paul says, "will have its own body;" and we might, with as much reason, expect a grain of wheat to produce an ear of barley, an acorn an apple tree, or the chrysalis of a butterfly to be transformed into an humming bird or a robin red breast, as those to rise up males who were safely deposited in a female form in the tomb.'

'Now, though there will be no marriages in heaven, and we cannot promise the hapless subjects of this Essay good husbands; yet, what is much better, they will find there an host of cordial friends and sincere lovers. And this delicious passion of love, instead of being restrained to a single object, will probably be infinitely extended and exalted into that universal benevolence, or *charity*, so strongly enforced in the Gospel. And in our spiritualized bodies we shall enjoy that refined intercourse of affection with the whole sex, which we now experience in the contracted sphere of the connubial state. And, as such an intercourse will greatly augment the happiness of heaven, we can hardly doubt that it will subsist there, and produce its genuine effect.'

'In short, though we must not expect a Mahometan paradise, we can hardly, I think, doubt that there will be such a beatific commerce and reciprocal affection between the souls of the good of different sexes as will constitute the chief felicity of heaven.'

'And those neglected virgins, who have meekly submitted to their destiny here, will meet with those endearments of which, from some personal defects, perhaps, they have here been unfortunately deprived.'

'Hence, then, I have endeavoured to extract matter of "*consolation* to those *neglected virgins*," who, by a pious resignation, and by cultivating universal benevolence, and forming virtuous habits, shall qualify themselves for the society of the saints in heaven.'

Whatever may be the truth in this matter, respecting which we have only the light of reason to influence our decision, the essay is truly ingenious and moral in its tendency; and we highly recommend it to the perusal of our readers: especially those who seem destined to "live, grow, and die in single blessedness *." In the mean time, we are desirous of seeing our fair friends, as many *as are called to that state*, enjoying in the present world the happiness of "the rose distilled."

* Shakspeare.

In

In the essay on Profaneness, the author observes that such a violation of duty should be treated like disloyal and seditious words: 'when an half-bred *gentleman*, through mere wantonness, profanes that name, which every one is supposed to reverence, in polite, much more in serious and religious company, he should be treated as a military officer would, or should, treat an ill-bred fellow, who vented treasonable or disrespectful expressions against the sovereign whom he serves.' This is stating the offence in a very *striking* light; and it is in reality of a far more serious nature than any transgression against an earthly potentate. This illustration of the offence, in point of obedience to a sovereign, may perhaps convince many of their guilt, who profess to be loyal, and yet dare to be profane.

On the sacred scriptures, Mr. Graves thus declares his sentiments:

'No one can have a more profound veneration for the sacred Scriptures than I have. And though Mr. Paine says, "he could have written a better book than the Bible," I defy him, and all the philosophers in France, to produce a work ancient or modern, of so extensive and multifarious a kind, in which the historical part is written with greater beauty and simplicity, or from which a better system of politics, or (allowing for the prevalence of some opinions in different ages of the world) a purer scheme of morals can be extracted; or, without any exception, where an equal or so divine an institute of religion has been offered to mankind.'

With regard to the question about which philosophers are divided, whether or not there is implanted in the mind of man what they call "The Moral Sense," which Bp. Warburton and Mr. Graves admit, while Locke and Dr. Paley deny it, we shall only remark that it appears to us a dispute about the faculty of reason which is given to man, and by which, according to the received impressions and principles inculcated by education, he is able to *feel at once*, in proportion to the strength of his reason, the fitness or unfitness of certain actions. What is in reality a regular deduction of reason is performed by the mind so instantaneously, that it obtains, in common language, the name of *feeling*; and hence *that* appears an *implanted perception*, which is in effect a mechanical and rapid process performed by reason.

The criticism which occurs in another essay, on the expression used by Shakspeare—"a green and yellow melancholy," we are much inclined to question: 'As most of the monuments in that part of the country where Shakspeare was born are made of alabaster of a pale yellow cast, it contracts a greenish mould in a damp church, and, I make no doubt, suggested that

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that idea.' The truth is, we believe, that Shakspeare copied from Nature, and not from any monumental figure: for it is well known to the medical world that, in certain pining disorders, that peculiar hue of "green and yellow" generally tinges, in a very striking manner, the female countenance.

The author's remarks on Self-importance will generally excite a smile of approbation:

'I sometimes meet a man so stately in his deportment, so haughty in his look, with such an air of defiance in his whole manner, that I shrink from his appearance, and feel myself annihilated in his presence. Yet, on recovering from my dismay, and reflecting on the *limited* power and capacity of every human being, I find, probably, on inquiry, the real character of this illustrious personage: that his pompous air conceals a mean spirit, and that the solemn countenance is only a veil for his ignorance and insignificance.

'Such are many of those colossal figures who seem to "bestride the world, and under whose legs, as it were, we petty mortals must *peep about*," to find a loop-hole to pass by them, without being crushed against the wall, or jostled into the kennel.

'One man, whom I have met, perhaps, at a third place, assumes a reserved and distant air, lest I should claim him as an acquaintance. Another man, with eyes fixed, looks strait forwards, and though our elbows almost touch, seems unconscious that any one is near him, or at least worth his notice.

'A third is near-sighted, and though we have met, perhaps, on various occasions, has not the honour to recollect my name. All these are different stratagems of pride and self-importance, which, though not reducible to the precise rules of quarrelling, "like the lie direct," and for which we can call a man to account; yet may and ought to be resented, or rather treated with the contempt which they deserve.

'I remember a stout fellow with a most terrific countenance, who, if he met a man strutting along in sublime contemplation of his own importance, and a sovereign contempt of all around him, he would, on a sudden, run up to him, turn his large white eyes upon him, and cry, Boh! This, it may be supposed, often involved him in a scuffle, or rough rencounter; but generally raised a laugh at the expence of the haughty despot.

'A proud look is an insult on the public. Pride was not made for man: nor for woman neither.'

The chearful little essay on the tax on Port Wine will amuse the reader. The author suggests an expedient under this heavy impost:

'But, after all, supplies must be raised, and taxes be imposed on the necessaries as well as luxuries of life: let us then make the best of what cannot be avoided.

'Perhaps, the dearness of wine may be attended with the same beneficial effects as the late scarcity of bread; and make us more sparing in the use of it, or find some substitute in its room.

'Let

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'Let the ladies then, after dinner, be content with three glasses, the number of the Graces; and the gentlemen with nine, the number of the Muses.'

If we rightly recollect, Sir William Temple was not so bountiful as Mr. Graves in his allowance to the gentlemen. He allotted a *third* glass to *good humour*, and a fourth to our *enemies*. Perhaps Mr. Graves's system, although it is founded on the proportions of Heathen Mythology, will be more commonly approved.

The second portion of the volume consists of a variety of compositions in verse, intitled—*poetical*, *panegyrical*, *humorous*, *miscellaneous*. In so multifarious a collection, it is difficult to give any general character of the whole. Indeed, it will be apparent to the reader that many of these compositions are the unlaboured effusions of a gay and vivacious mind, and are not so much intended to display *the poet*, as to amuse the composer, and to furnish recreation for his friends, who can be pleased without exercising the severity of a critic.—At the same time, we must do the author the justice to add that several of these pieces have merit considered as poetry, and will be commended even by the fastidious critic. We give an extract from the humorous collection:

'JOHN BALL'S* SEDITIOUS TEXT.

"When Adam delv'd, and Eve span,
Who was then a Gentleman?"

'ANSWER.

'When naked all, like Eve and Adam,
Your Joan might be as good as Madam;
And, tillage then the only trade,
We all had learnt to use the spade.
But, tho' mankind are still the same,
And *equal rights* by nature claim;
Yet, if no social laws existed,
And every man did what he listed;
If all mankind must *dig* or *spin*,
You'd have no covering but your skin.
For, who would weave, or be your taylor?
Who'd be a soldier or a sailor?
Who'd make your tables or your shelves?
'Troth! you must make them all yourselves.
Let each man then assist his neighbour,
And each perform some useful labour:

'* A fanatic priest in the reign of Richard II., who by his seditious sermons and rhymes, without reason, sowed the seeds of Wat Tyler's Rebellion.'

Thus

Thus various arts would be invented,
And those, now poor and discontented,
Might soon grow rich, by labouring more;
While *lazy* folks must needs be poor:
For why should they, who take no pains,
Rob others of their honest gains?
While some obey, and some command,
And each man lends an helping hand;
While those best skill'd, the vessel steer,
Each may be happy in his sphere.
In short, 'tis evident, you see,
That different ranks there needs must be;
There must be then, say what you can,
That *dreadful* thing—a Gentleman!'

We observe repeatedly in these poetical pieces the expression "I wont" without the auxiliary—was. We shall not, however, detain our readers with any verbal or trivial remarks, but conclude with recommending this sensible and good-humoured volume to general notice.

Man?

ART. XI. *An Experimental Inquiry into the Nature and Propagation of Heat.* By John Leslie. 8vo. pp. 570 and 9 Plates. 14s. Boards. Mawman. 1804.

THE philosophical world is by no means unacquainted with the name of the author of this volume, although no separate detail of his labours in the cause of science had previously issued from his pen. We are glad, however, to see that he has at length turned his attention to the production of an elaborate work; and that he has selected for investigation the important subject of Heat, which has lately been much discussed, and which forms so essential a part of our chemical and philosophical knowlege. The publication before us has already attracted much notice from scientific men: notice to which we conceive it to be fully intitled; and every degree of which, that is within our power to assign to it, we shall now bestow on it by entering into a copious and patient analysis of its contents. In the execution of this duty, we shall follow, in part, the plan of the author; first stating the experiments, and then explaining the theory of which they are the ground-work. A previous description of the apparatus, however, is necessary; and we shall give it in Mr. Leslie's own words:

'The principal articles of the apparatus were *specula* or reflectors made of tinned iron. Of these I had several, of different dimensions; from twelve to about fourteen inches in diameter, and with a depth of concavity from 1¼ to near 2½ inches. It cost me no small trouble to obtain what I wanted. I had to make repeated trials before I could find

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find an artist skilful enough to execute the reflectors with any tolerable precision, or who was disposed to listen to my directions. But by dint of perseverance, my sanguine wishes were at length gratified. The reflectors were hammered out of block-tin, and highly finished, exhibiting an admirable brightness, smoothness, and regularity of surface. Aware that the aberration from the focus in reflection must be very considerable when large segments of hollow spheres are used, I sought to procure the parabolic figure. I formed thin slips of mahogany with great accuracy, into segments of parabolas of different sizes, to serve as gages for the workman; and with some dexterity, and the frequent changing of the hammers, the reflectors were fashioned to fit those shapes with surprizing exactness. As it was my object to obtain the most powerful reflectors that could be made in this way, I was at pains to procure tin-plates of the largest dimensions, and to have them hammered to the greatest depth of concavity that the metal would bear without being fractured. Exposed to the direct light of the sun, these reflectors collected the rays into a pretty distinct focus, scarcely exceeding half an inch in diameter; so that the whole errors of the figure did not occasion a deviation of more than a quarter of an inch on either side. And though the sun's image was therefore one hundred times more diffuse than if the figure had been perfectly true, yet the effect of those reflectors was very remarkable, and even comparable with that of concave mirrors; for bits of wood or cloth, held in the focus, were burnt through or set on fire, in a few seconds.'

The second part of the apparatus, intended to contain hot water, consisted of hollow tin cubes, formed exactly, and hammered to a smooth and bright surface:

'These canisters had an orifice at the middle of the upper side, from half an inch to an inch in diameter, and the same in height, fitted to receive a cap through which was inserted a thermometer, whose bulb might reach nearly to the centre of the water. The cubes were of different sizes; of three, four, six, and ten inches. In two of them, namely, those of four and ten inches wide, the lid was not soldered, but could be adapted or removed at pleasure; and there being no occasion for an aperture, the stem of the thermometer was passed through a short pipe.'—

'One side was constantly kept clean and bright, the opposite one was covered with writing paper pasted to it, or was painted over with a coat of lamp-black, mixed up with as little size as would make it take a body. The other sides, being allotted for miscellaneous service, were, according as the case required, coated indifferently with tin foil, or coloured papers, or different pigments, or had the nature of their surface changed by mechanical or chemical agents.'

The canisters were placed on stools, so contrived as to have their centres in the horizontal axis of the reflector.

The chief instrument in the apparatus is the *differential thermometer:* which consists of a tube bent into the form of the letter U, each extremity being closed by a hollow ball, and sulphuric acid tinged with carmine being introduced into the tube. Each leg

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leg of the instrument may be from three to six inches in height, and the balls from two to four inches apart. The lower end of the syphon is cemented into a wooden base, so that the two balls may be on a level with the centre of the speculum.

'A moment's attention (says the author) to the construction of this instrument will satisfy us that it is affected only by the *difference* of heat in the corresponding balls, and is calculated to measure such difference with peculiar nicety. As long as both balls are of the same temperature, whatever this may be, the air contained in the one will have the same elasticity as that in the other, and consequently the intercluded coloured liquor, being thus pressed equally in opposite directions, must remain stationary. But if, for instance, the ball which holds a portion of the liquor be warmer than the other, the superior elasticity of the confined air will drive it forwards, and make it rise in the opposite branch above the zero, to an elevation proportional to the excess of elasticity or of heat. It is easy, after the mode practised in the case of the hygrometer, to fix the magnitude of the degrees for any particular instrument, and, if it were expedient, other methods might be proposed which are applicable to the present instance. The interval between freezing and boiling water being distinguished into an hundred equal parts called *centigrade*, each of these subdivided decimally constitute the degrees which I employ, and which, following up the same system of nomenclature, would be termed *milligrade*. With the measures which I have stated, each differential thermometer will contain from 100 to 150 degrees. I would observe, however, that such graduation is seldom positively required, and that, in most cases, it is less important to know the absolute quantities of heat than their relative proportions. I need scarcely add, that I had a variety of those differential thermometers, of different sizes, and of some diversity of forms, adapted for particular occasions.'

We now proceed to relate the experiments.

The apparatus being in a close room without a fire, the canister was placed opposite to the reflector; and one of the balls of the thermometer (called, for the sake of distinction, the focal ball) was placed in the focus of the reflector. Almost immediately, the coloured liquor rose. When the blackened side of the canister was opposed to the reflector, the effect was denoted by 100 degrees; when a side covered with paper, by 98; when a side covered with crown glass, by 90.

Any one of these experiments, then, clearly manifests an accumulation of heat in the focus of the reflector; and, compared together, they indicate a slight alteration of effect attendant on the quality of the substance, of which the side of the heated canister is formed.—Present to the reflector the polished side, or any side covered with tin foil, and the liquor in the differential thermometer sinks to 12 degrees. Here, then, is a manifest difference of effect; and, without trespassing against the cautionary precepts of inductive philosophy, we may safely say

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that the power of emitting heat, so as again to be concentrated, is materially different in glass and tin; and again, for the sake of convenience, glass, paper, or lamp-black, as producing nearly equal effects, may be put in the same class of substances that powerfully emit heat, which can be again concentrated.

If heat, however, can be concentrated at a certain point, is one substance more qualified than another to receive such heat?—Cover the focal ball with tin foil, present the blackened side of the canister to the reflector, and the effect is 20 degrees; present the bright side, and the effect is 2½: but the corresponding effects before were 100, and 12. Hence the power of tin to emit heat that can be concentrated, and to receive or absorb concentrated heat, is much inferior to the power of glass; and the two circumstances are concomitant, viz. the powers of emitting and absorbing heat.

If glass be conceived to *absorb* heat abundantly, then to be consistent, we must say that it reflects heat sparingly; and experiment shews that, if a glass reflector be substituted for the metal one, the effect on the thermometer is very small, and the same whether the back of the glass speculum be silvered or not, whether it be smooth or rough: but, if the front of the speculum be covered with tin foil, then the effect on the thermometer is increased ten-fold.

The human mind is so impatient during the interval which separates new and strange facts from acknowleged principles, that it soon forms for itself a mode of connection, and in some way unites effects with causes. To account for the curious facts which we have related, it might be suggested that heat is a subtle fluid, streaming like light from heated bodies, and permeating all substances. If this suggestion were well founded, thin screens between the reflector and canister would not materially alter the effect on the focal ball, and would produce the same alteration in all distances from the canister: but Mr. Leslie placed a screen of tin foil between the canister and reflector, and the effect on the focal ball was destroyed: he placed a screen of plate glass, and the effect was 20 degrees, at a certain distance, but less when the distance was increased; consequently, emitted heat does not permeate all bodies equally, nor similarly to light. If, instead of glass, a paper screen be used, the effect is 23°.

"What then (says Mr. L.) is this calorific and frigorific fluid after which we are enquiring? It is incapable of permeating solid substances. It cannot pass through tin, nor glass, nor paper. It is not light, it has no relation to æther, it bears no analogy to the fluids real or imaginary, of magnetism and electricity. But why have recourse to invisible agents?

——— Quod

——————— Quod petis, hic est.

It is merely the ambient AIR.

'But how shall we explain the diversified effects of different screens? By all of them, the current or pulsation of hot or cold air, in its progress towards the reflector, will be completely stopped: and, since the direct action of the canister is intercepted, the screen must operate by a secondary and derivative influence. From its position it acquires heat or cold, and, in its turn, displays the same energy as if it had formed the surface of a new canister of the corresponding temperature. It is no valid objection, that a substance so thin as paper, being incapable of containing much heat, is fitted only to produce a slight and fugitive effect. The screen is enabled to maintain its temperature, and consequently to continue its action, by the perpetual accessions of heat or cold which it receives from the canister.

'It hence appears, that the quantity of effect produced upon the focal ball when screens are interposed, is determined by the combined operation of two kindred properties; their aptitude to receive heat, and their power to discharge it. Thus, with paper the effect is greater than with glass; because, as was formerly ascertained, the receptive and the dispersive qualities of the former are likewise greater. With tin no perceptible impression is made, for those qualities it has in a very inferior degree; and though of each taken singly the action might be discerned, the effect of their combined influence is too minute to be observed with certainty.'

From the preceding statements, it is plain, we think, that these screens act merely as second canisters: but, to put the matter beyond all doubt, the author made the following extremely ingenious experiment:

'EXPERIMENT X.

'Select two panes of crown-glass as flat and smooth as possible, and coat one side of each with tin foil, by means of a little gum-water. Thus prepared, and the apparatus put in order, join those panes together with their tin surfaces in contact, and attach them to the frame of the screen; the focal ball will receive an impression equal to about 18 degrees. Invert the panes of glass, placing them with the tin coatings outmost: the liquor of the differential thermometer will now sink back again to the beginning of the scale.

'Such is the *experimentum crucis*. It establishes beautifully and, I think, beyond the power of contradiction, the simple theory to which we have been led by a close train of induction. In both cases the obstacle presented, or the compound screen, is absolutely the same. If the effects in the focus of the reflector were produced by some subtle emanation capable of permeating solid substances, how could such a singular contrast obtain? It seems impossible to elude the force of this argument; but in a subject so curious it may prove acceptable perhaps to relate a few more experiments, which tend at once to confirm and illustrate the same conclusion.'

As our limits do not suffer us to relate all these experiments, suffice it to say that they confirm the conclusion already deduced.

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From the concentration and accumulation of heat, then, on the focal point of the reflector, and from the stoppage of heat by the interposition of screens, it seems that a flow of heated matter proceeds from the heated canister. Would such a flow, under such circumstances, take place in non-elastic fluids,—in water, for instance? The ensuing experiment gives a decisive answer to this question:

'Place the apparatus within a large tub, and secure each separate part in its proper position. Fill the tub with cold water, so as to cover the whole, except a funnel soldered to the mouth of the canister. Things being thus disposed, pour boiling water into the canister; and whatever surface fronts the reflector, the differential thermometer will not be at all affected.'

Thus, by a series of very interesting and skilfully conducted experiments, Mr. L. forces on the attention of the reader two very important facts; first, that, in air and elastic fluids, bodies discharge part of their heat with powers and energies that depend on the quality of the heated surface; and, secondly, that in non-elastic fluids, this peculiar mode of discharging heat does not take place. This property, or mode of discharging heat, then, seems intimately to depend on the elasticity of the medium through which it is conveyed; and therefore may not heat be conveyed by the pulsations of the elastic medium, and, when the medium is air, with the same velocity as sound?

Mr. Leslie supposes that heat is matter, a gaseous fluid of great tenuity, capable of chemically combining with the particles of other bodies. He shews, with great strength of argument, that it cannot be a mere effect produced by internal motion; and that, by mechanical addition, or simple aggregation, it could not effect those dilatations which it is found to produce. Again, he supposes that, as actual contact never takes place, the interval which separates the surface of a body from the medium in which it is placed is greater, or less, according as the chemical attraction between the particles of the body and the medium is less or greater. Hence the boundary between air and glass is less deep than the boundary between air and metal. Now, when the particles of air approach a heated surface, they receive a sudden accession of heat, and consequent expansion, which causes them quickly to recede from the heated surface, in the form of initial waves: the less, then, the interval between the particles of air and the surface, the more frequently will the contact be renewed, and the more quickly will one hot pulse follow another. Heat, therefore, will be propagated by means of a number of concentric spherical shells of air; consequently, the distance from the heated surface being increased, the intensity of the heat declines as the shell augments; and,

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according to this doctrine, all heat in the same elastic medium will be transmitted with equal velocity, and the quantity conveyed will depend on the interval between consecutive pulses.

If the circumstance of the contiguity of the particles of air to those of the heated surface were the real cause of the difference in the quantity of emitted heat, then, if by any means the contiguity between the particles of air and of metal could be increased, more heat ought to be emitted; and such is the fact: for Mr. L. furrowed or striated the surface of the tin side of the canister, and the differential thermometer indicated an augmented effect. It is easy to see, by the help of a simple diagram, that the proximity of some of the particles of the heated metal is increased by this operation of furrowing.

A variety of experiments were made to ascertain the effect of substratums over the metal and glass sides of the canister. The thinnest metal covering over the glass side of the canister reduces the pulsatory power of that side to the power of a metal side: but the case is different when pellicles of isinglass are spred over a metal side: the pulsatory power increases with the thickness of the pellicle; and when the effect of the blackened side of the canister is reckoned 100 degrees, the effect of a thin coat of jelly applied to the bright metal side of the canister was 38 degrees, and that of a coat four times as thick, 54 degrees. To make experiments correlative to these, the surface of the tin reflector ought to be covered with thin pellicles of isinglass: for then, the recipient power of the reflector being augmented, its reflective power ought to be diminished; and experiments proved this to be the case: since the entire effect of the reflector, reckoned at 100 degrees, was thus regularly diminished:

Thickness of coating in parts of an inch,	Effect of Reflection.
$\frac{1}{20.000}$	77
$\frac{1}{10.000}$	49
$\frac{1}{5000}$	37
$\frac{1}{2000}$	27
$\frac{1}{1000}$	19

We have but slightly touched on a subject which, after all that has been said, is still pressed with many difficulties, namely, the materiality of heat. Those who discuss it should previously settle what is to be a test of materiality. If ponderability

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derability be made an essential quality of matter, and if heat cannot be proved to possess weight, then heat is not material, according to the previous conditions: but the weight of heat is so small, that it defies the nicety of our balances to detect it; this may be true: yet it only requires us to admit the supposition of the possibility of its existence as a separate fluid: the thing is still to be proved. In fact, then, till heat can be weighed, or exhibited separately, when we say that heat is a gaseous fluid chemically combining with bodies, and producing, by the exertion of repellant forces, dilatation and expansion, we do little more than form for ourselves a mode of conceiving the production of certain effects; and we introduce an ideal agent, adapted and qualified to carry on operations of which our knowlege, to a certain degree, must be supposititious and conjectural.

If, however, we are averse to admit as a philosophical dogma the existence of the fluid matter of heat, yet, by conceiving such a fluid, we obtain the best mode of accounting for its phenomena; and the present author's explanation of the reflection of heat is very able. It does not radiate like light; nor does it propagate itself by its own individual vibrations: but it chemically combines with the particles of the elastic fluid, (be it air, atmospherical or hydrogenous,) and, by suddenly combining, it causes them as suddenly to dilate and recede, forming aerial pulses.

When the spherical aerial shells, charged with heat, come into contact with the reflector, part of the heat is absorbed by the latter; the quantity absorbed depending on the nature of that instrument: the rest, not separately, but combined with air, is reflected to the focus.

When light is reflected, the angles of Incidence and Reflection are equal; and if light be an impinging fluid, this exact equality of Incidence and Reflection may be explained by the amazing velocity with which light impinges. If the velocity were less, the equality of reflection would not take place; and heat, therefore, impinging only with the velocity with which sound is propagated, (1142 feet in a second) is imperfectly reflected. Consequently, there must be an abberration in its focus; and the experiments before us clearly shew that such is the fact.

Mr. L. indeed argues, and with his usual force, to prove that light and heat are the same fluid; that light, in fact, is heat in a state of combination with bodies, and that the chief distinction consists in the velocity with which the former is endued. Many circumstances are mentioned which render their identity probable: but there is one fact which, according

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to the author, indisputably proves it: viz. 'If a body be exposed to the sun's rays, it will, in every possible case, be found to indicate a measure of heat exactly proportioned to the quantity of light which it has absorbed.' We do not find this fact firmly established: it is not proved by the photometer, for it is the assumed principle on which that instrument acts; besides, if it be true that the heat excited is in exact proportion to the light absorbed, is it a logical inference that light and heat are identical? If light be absorbed by bodies, does it not combine with them? If it combines with them, does it not lose its velocity, and become, according to the author's hypothesis, heat?—or will the act of rubbing two lumps of quartz together restore to the fluid its prodigious activity, and extrude it in the form of light? We state doubts rather than decided objections; for Mr. Leslie, by a variety of reasonings and illustrations, has rendered his position very artful and formidable. One of his proofs, however, seems to us not beyond the reach of controversy: If a plate of glass, he says, be placed between the sun's rays and a body, the temperature of the body is diminished, for instance, one-tenth: interpose a second plate, and the diminution of temperature is one-tenth of the remainder, and so on: but, if a plate of glass intercepts one-tenth of the sun's rays,—that is, of light,—is it a truth independent of experiment, that a similar plate will intercept one-tenth of the remainder?

Metal bodies conduct heat better, (that is, more quickly,) than earthen, or vitreous, or wooden bodies; and from this fact it has been inferred, (illogically indeed,) that heated metal bodies cool faster in air than vitreous bodies: but the curious experiments first related shew that the latter bodies emit a portion of heat, which can again be concentrated, more copiously than the former. There is, therefore, one cause why a vitreous ought to cool faster than a metal body. To guide us in these hazardous researches, let us again refer to experiment:

'In a close room without a fire, having placed a thin hollow globe of planished tin, four inches in diameter, and with a narrow neck, on a slender metal frame or stool, and resting against the sharp edge, I filled it with warm water, and inserted a thermometer. The air of the room was perfectly steady, and at the temperature of 15 degrees centigrade. I noticed carefully the progress of the ball in cooling: from the station of 35°, till the internal thermometer sunk to the middle point, or 25°, the time elapsed was 156 minutes. I next painted the surface of the ball with a coat of lamp-black, and again filling it with warm water, scrupulously repeated the experiment. The same effect was now produced, or one-half of the heat expended, in the space of only 81 minutes.'

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From this experiment, it is clear that the addition of a coat of pigment accelerates the cooling of the metallic vessel. Are bodies cooled, then, solely by the pulsatory power with which they emit heat? If they are, the metallic body ought to cool eight times more slowly (since 8 nearly $= \frac{100}{12}$) than the painted one: but we may easily infer from the experiment that this is not the case; for, supposing the decrement of heat to vary in the compound ratio of the temperature and increment of the time, $dh \propto -h.dt$ (h heat, t the time,); and to obtain an equation, suppose the loss of heat in one minute at the initial act of cooling to be $\frac{H}{x}$ (H the whole heat at first); then, in x minutes, were the process of cooling uniform, $dh = -h.dt$, $\frac{1}{x}$: consequently, $\frac{t}{x} =$ hyp. log. $\frac{H}{h} =$ (if M the modulus be put $= .43429448$, &c.) $= \frac{1}{M}$ log. $\frac{H}{h}$; hence $x = t \times M. \frac{1}{\log. \frac{H}{h}}$. Let, now, h as in the experiment just quoted $= \frac{H}{2}$ $\therefore x = t. \frac{M}{\log. 2} = t. \frac{434294}{301030}$: but, from the experiment, t for the vessel of planished tin $= 156$, for the vessel coated with pigment $= 81$; hence x in the first case $= 156. \frac{434294}{301030} = 225$ nearly; in the second case $x = 81 \times \frac{434294}{301030} = 117$ nearly; or, in other words, the metal surface must have lost every minute the 225th part of its heat, and the painted the 117th part. Consequently, vessels are cooled not solely by their pulsatory power of emitting heat; for, if they did cool solely by that power, when the painted surface lost the 117th part of its heat, the metal one ought to lose only the 936th part.

There are certainly some other causes, besides that of pulsatory energy, by which bodies lose their heat. If a hot body be immersed in water, it emits no heat by pulsation; but it rapidly cools; and with the same rapidity whether its sides be metallic or covered with pigment. If the air, then, were deprived of its elasticity, the process of cooling in it would be similar to that which takes place in water; and though the elasticity of the air may perhaps modify or interrupt this process, it cannot prevent it. Part of the fluid circumambient the heated body must become specifically lighter, and ascend. Again, particles of the fluid must come in contact with the heated surface, and, from an increased expansive force, recede

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in curves convex to horizontal lines drawn from the respective points of contact. On both these accounts, motion must be produced in the ambient medium, and the heated surface must be visited by fresh portions of fluid: a question then arises, whether, and in what ratio, the renewal of fresh air accelerates the cooling of bodies? and, whether the renewal of the contact of fresh air impairs the pulsatory power of discharging heat? To determine the latter part of the question, the author, by means of a pair of bellows, impelled a current of air along the heated side of the canister when opposed to the reflector, and no effect was produced on the differential thermometer; that is, the ascended liquor remained at the same height:—to determine the first part of the question, heated balls were exposed to the action of the wind, and the greater the wind, the greater was the rate of cooling. It is plain, therefore, that the renewal of the contact of fresh air accelerates the cooling of a body; and it may easily be shewn that the effect of such a renewal is the same, whatever be the nature of the heated surface. Thus, in a preceding page, we have denoted by $\varkappa$ the time required for the cooling of a body, if the process of cooling were uniform. Expose now two equal and similar balls, one metallic, the other covered with pigment, to be cooled in a close room; and from the observed times in which they lose half their heat, calculate $\varkappa$: suppose $\varkappa$ for the metallic ball to be a; for the painted b. Again, expose the same balls to the action of a current of air, mark the times, and calculate as before $\varkappa$: suppose now, $\varkappa$ for the metallic ball to be a', for the painted b'; then the difference in the rate of cooling, produced by the action of the current of wind, for the metallic ball $= \frac{1}{a} - \frac{1}{a'}$ and for the painted ball $= \frac{1}{b} - \frac{1}{b'}$. Now in low temperatures, that is, for instance, when the temperature of the heated ball above the surrounding atmosphere is about 20°, experiment proves that $\frac{1}{a} - \frac{1}{a'}$ nearly equals $\frac{1}{b} - \frac{1}{b'}$; and more nearly, the stronger is the current of air to which the balls are exposed. Hence it is inferred that the effect of a current of wind is the same, whatever be the nature of the heated surface.

The above values of $\varkappa$ (*viz.* a, b, a', b',) are not accurate: since they are calculated from the formula $db = \frac{-b.dt}{\varkappa}$ which in high temperatures is not true.

The formula, $db = \frac{-b.dt}{\varkappa}$, is deduced from this principle

that

that the decrements of heat is proportional to the difference of temperature of the conterminous surfaces. If the principle be true, then, the same value of $\varkappa$ ought to result, from whatever temperature and observed time it is calculated. Now let the difference of temperature be 20°: in 156 minutes, half the heat in the metal ball is expended, and in 81 minutes half the heat in the painted ball; consequently, for the metallic ball $\varkappa = \frac{t}{\text{hyp. log. } 2} = 225$, and for the painted, $= 117$.

Again, let the difference of temperature between the same balls and the air of the room be 80 degrees: in 15.5 minutes, the metallic ball loses 10 degrees of heat; in 10.5 minutes, the painted loses 10 degrees; consequently, for the metallic ball $\varkappa = \frac{15.5}{\text{hyp. log. } \frac{80}{70}} = 15.5 \cdot \frac{43429 \text{ \&c.}}{\log. 80 - \log. 70} = 116$; for the painted ball, $\varkappa = \frac{10.5}{\text{hyp. log. } \frac{80}{70}} = 10.5 \cdot \frac{43429 \text{ \&c.}}{\log. 80 - \log. 70.} = 79'$; which numbers (116, 79) are widely different from 225 and 117. Therefore the principle that the loss of heat is as the difference of temperature of the conterminous surfaces is not true, and the formula $dh = \frac{-h\,dt}{\varkappa}$ cannot be applied in all temperatures. The process of refrigeration is evidently accelerated in the higher temperatures. — It has been already shewn that the powers of dissipating heat by pulsation in painted and metallic surfaces are as 8 to 1: let P, therefore, denote that power in metal, $8P$ denotes the power for a painted surface: but, between the temperatures of 20 and 10, the rates of cooling are as $\frac{1}{225}$ and $\frac{1}{117}$: hence $8P - P$ or $7P = \frac{1}{117} - \frac{1}{225} = \frac{108}{117 \cdot 225} = \frac{9 \cdot 12}{117 \cdot 25 \cdot 9} = \frac{12}{2925}$: consequently $P = \frac{1}{1706}$ nearly, and $8P = \frac{8}{1706}$. Hence, if we subtract from the rate of cooling what is due to the pulsatory power, we shall have a remainder denoting an effect belonging to some other cause of refrigeration: which effect therefore $= \frac{1}{225} - \frac{1}{1706} = \frac{1}{260}$ nearly. By a similar process, between the temperatures of 80 and 70, the effect belonging to a cause of refrigeration, hitherto not assigned, $= \frac{1}{125}$. Mr. Leslie ascribes this refrigeration, which is independent of the pulsatory energy, to the *repeated contact of air.*

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No doubt, the repeated contact of air, without impairing the pulsatory energy, accelerates the process of cooling; and it is important to know the exact effect produced by a stream of air. From experiments very ingeniously instituted, Mr. Leslie determined that the refrigerant power of a stream of air varies as its velocity *. Hence, as, in the act of cooling, motion must be produced in the ambient medium, the rate of cooling will depend on the celerity of that motion; or on the celerity with which the contact of the heated surface with fresh particles of air is renewed.

The explanation of the additional causes of refrigeration, besides that of pulsation, given by the author, is not, in our opinion, very perspicuous and satisfactory. He supposes that a slow recession of heated particles takes place, in lines perpendicular to the heated surface, and that the velocity of recession varies as the excess of temperature: for, since the square of the velocity varies as the space multiplied into the force, and

* When the velocity $= \frac{20}{3}$ feet in a second, the rate of cooling was found $= \frac{1}{120}$. Let v denote increase of velocity above $\frac{20}{3}$ in a second, (Mr. L. seems to us to have made a mistake in calling v the velocity) then $\frac{20}{3} : 6\frac{2}{3} + v :: \frac{1}{120} : \frac{6\frac{2}{3} + v}{800}$, the rate of cooling belonging to the velocity $6\frac{2}{3} + v$. On this principle, Mr. L. constructs an Anemometer, the account of which is subjoined:

'From the same principle we derive the construction of a new and very simple kind of *anemometer*. It is in reality nothing more than a thermometer, only with its bulb larger than usual. Holding it in the open still air, the temperature is marked: it is then warmed by the application of the hand, and the time is noted which it takes to sink back to the middle point. This I shall term the fundamental measure of cooling. The same observation is made on exposing the bulb to the impression of the wind, and I shall call the time required for the bisection of the interval of temperatures, the occasional measure of cooling. After these preliminaries, we have the following easy rule: —*Divide the fundamental by the occasional measure of cooling, and the excess of the quotient above unit being multiplied by* $4\frac{1}{2}$, *will express the velocity of the wind in miles per hour.* The bulb of the thermometer ought to be more than half an inch in diameter, and may, for the sake of portability, be filled with alcohol, tinged, as usual, with archil. To simplify the observation, a sliding scale of equal parts may be applied to the tube. When the bulb has acquired the due temperature, the zero of the slide is set opposite to the limit of the coloured liquor in the stem; and, after having been heated, it again stands at 20° in its descent, the time which it thence takes until it sinks to 10° is measured by a stop-watch. Extemporaneous calculation may be avoided, by having a table engraved upon the scale for the series of occasional intervals of cooling.'

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the force is measured by the space through which the heated particles recede, $(vel^y)^2 \propto (space)^2$ or $(force)^2$, and $vel^y \propto$ expansive force, or as the excess of temperature. These heated particles, in receding, communicate their heat to the surrounding fluid; their place is supplied by fresh particles; and thus, by the renewal of contact, the refrigerating effect is accelerated. On a subject so intricate, and so liable to objection, it is right to quote the author's own words:

'Each portion of air or gaseous fluid which touches a hot surface must receive that same measure of heat and a corresponding increase of elasticity. It, consequently, dilates with a force proportional to the space through which it recedes, or to the elevation of temperature which it has assumed. But the square of the acquired velocity, as we formerly remarked, is compounded of the space and the actuating force: in the present case, it is, therefore, as the square of either of these elements, or as the square of the degree of heat which is absorbed. The velocity of propulsion is hence proportional simply to the excess of temperature. The time of action is always evidently the same, because, if the space be enlarged, the rate of dilatation is likewise increased; and hence, from every exciting point of the hot surface, a slender continued stream of air is emitted perpendicularly, whose velocity is proportioned to the measure of heat incessantly communicated. When the process is inverted, and the surface affected is colder than the surrounding atmosphere, the contiguous portions suffer contraction and a diminution of their elasticity, which occasions a gentle perpendicular flow directed towards its source, and productive of a similar though an opposite effect.

'Thus the discharge of heat from a body is materially promoted by the soft propellent motion excited continually at its surface. This efflux extends to a very short distance, before it spends its force and loses itself in the atmosphere; yet it equally produces the refrigerating effect, by quickening the circulation and fresh contact of the ambient medium. Though it conspires with pulsation to accelerate the dispersion of heat, it differs essentially in its character from that species of energy. Pulsation is the same at all degrees of heat, and its intensity depends merely on the nature of the bounding surface: but the perpendicular flow is more vigorous in proportion to the excess of temperature, and has no relation whatever to the qualities, physical or mechanical, of that surface. It was shown that only a very few particles disseminated in the contiguous shell of air, feel at once the pulsatory influence: the other particles, which constitute the general mass, probably imbibe their share of heat, and passively obey the impression of their augmented elasticity.'

To determine the law of the rate of cooling with regard to the temperature, recourse must be had to experiment; and Mr. Leslie, by repeated trials, found that at the temperatures 10°, 40°, 70°, the rates of cooling for a metallic surface were 2, 3, 4; and for a painted surface, 4, 5, 6. Consequently, if we increase the temperature by 30°, we increase the rate of cooling by 1,

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by 1, the pulsatory energy remaining the same. Hence, denoting by P the pulsatory energy, and by an unknown quantity x some unknown refrigerating cause, independent of the nature of the heated surface, we have $\begin{matrix} 8P + x = 4 \\ P + x = 2 \end{matrix}$ temperature being 10°. Consequently, $P = \frac{2}{7}$, and $x = 2 - \frac{2}{7} = 1\frac{5}{7}$, which two numbers $\frac{2}{7}$, $1\frac{5}{7}$, therefore solely denote two effects, or losses of heat; one due to pulsation, a known cause, the other to causes not yet investigated. Suppose, now, the effect $1\frac{5}{7}$ to be due to two causes y, z, one of which (y) varies as the excess of temperature; then, since at 30 the value of $y = 1$, at 10 it $= \frac{1}{3}$. Consequently, $1\frac{5}{7} = \frac{1}{3} + z$, or $z = 1\frac{8}{21}$, the measure of a third unknown refrigerating cause. We have stated this reasoning in the above cautious terms, because we are aware that,—if a person denies that besides pulsation a second refrigerating cause, varying as the temperature, and expounded in its operation by the perpendicular recession of heated particles, can be distinctly ascertained,—proofs sufficiently satisfactory cannot be collected from Mr. L.'s reasoning, to convince him of the contrary; indeed, we think that this is an assailable part of the author's doctrine. It is difficult to conceive how the heated surface can at once cause some particles to recede, forming pulses, and others to recede in lines perpendicular to the surface; and these latter particles, in consequence of their recession from an expansive force and increased rarity, must describe curve lines concave to a horizontal plane drawn above the heated body. In our opinion, Mr. L. too much neglects the dissipation of heat as proceeding from the ascent of the heated particles.

The third cause of refrigeration, viz. z, whose effect we have deduced to be $1\frac{8}{21}$, the author thus assigns:

'The portion of heat thus consumed is most certainly not annihilated; neither is it transported to a distance, by any species of elastic motion excited in the encircling fluid. It is, therefore, absorbed by the contiguous shell of matter, and afterwards slowly diffused through the extended mass. Air is still the sole medium by which heat endeavours to maintain the balance among remote or detached bodies; but here its operation is of a passive nature, and it receives and conveys the caloric impressions through its substance in the same manner as a bar of iron or any solid material.

'This completes the analysis of the refrigerating action of air. There are four distinct modes in which it produces the effect: three of these are always conjoined, and the fourth only throws in its occasional influence. They all conspire to the same end, but their relative shares of operation are various and mutable. One source of communication depends on the quality of the heated surface, another on its elevation of temperature, a third on the permanent conducting disposition of the air, and the last arises from the celerity of impulse by which

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which that active fluid may chance to be affected. The continual ascent of the hot, and consequently rarefied, air, must contribute in some degree, though indirectly, to accelerate the effect; for it is evident, that the stagnation of a warm encircling atmosphere would debilitate the operation of the combined refrigerating causes.'

We have already noticed that the theoretical results from such a formula as $dh = -h.dt$ are not confirmed by experiments. According to Mr. Leslie, the true formula is $dh = -(a+h)\ h.dt$, h excess of temperature, t time, a a constant quantity; and the following is his method of obtaining this formula. At the equidistant temperatures of 10°, 40°, 70°, in a variety of experiments, he says, he found the *rates* of cooling for a metallic surface to be, 2, 3, 4, and for a painted surface, 4, 5, 6: hence, to find the relation connecting the rates of cooling with the temperature, suppose v to be a quantity to be investigated; then, when the temperature is 10 and 40°, $v+10 : v+40 :: 2 : 3$; consequently $v = 50$;—and for a painted surface $v+10 : v+40 :: 4 : 5$; consequently $v = 110$. Hence the rates of cooling, corresponding to any other temperature h, are for a metallic and painted surface respectively $50+h$, and $110+h$; and according to Mr. L. these quantities represent the combined action of three refrigerating causes, viz. the reiteration of aerial contact, pulsation, and the diffusive absorption of the atmospheric mass. Moreover, these three causes are, he says, always inseparably conjoined. Now the decrement of heat must vary in a ratio compounded of the refrigerating causes, and the increment of the time; or, in Mr. L.'s own words, in a ratio compounded of *the refrigerating energy* $(a+h)$ and the *intensity of impression* (h): therefore $dh = -(a+h)\ h.dt$ (a denoting indifferently either 50 or 110).

Now to this theory and connected formula we have some objections: or rather we would merely state them as doubts, since we are aware that the author, *quite at home* with his own theory, may possibly have unwaringly omitted some circumstances of explanation that are essential to his readers. He says that the rates of cooling are as 2, 3, 4; now how are these *rates* calculated? They vary inversely as the ranges; and if they are calculated from such an expression as $dh = \frac{-h.dt}{x}$, they are calculated from a particular and imperfect hypothesis. If the expression $dh = -(a+h)\ h.dt$ be correct, the true ranges and rates ought to be deduced from it: or does Mr. L. mean, on a particular hypothesis, to calculate one of the elements of the refrigerating process, and to apply that element, so calculated, in the general and true theory?

By intensity of impression, which varies as h, we suppose that the author means the refrigerating cause which arises from the

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the perpendicular recession of the expanded particles from the heated surface: but he should have explained this phrase.

The differential expression, from which the loss of heat is to be calculated, is $dh = -(a+b)\ b.dt$; consequently $dt = -\frac{dh}{b(a+b)} = \frac{1}{a}\left\{\frac{dh}{a+b} - \frac{dh}{b}\right\}$, and integrating $t = \frac{1}{a}$ hyp. log. $\left(\frac{a+b}{b}\right)$ + Corr^a = (if H be initial heat) $\frac{1}{a}\left\{\text{h. l.}\left(\frac{a+b}{a+H}\right)\right.$ $\left. - \text{h.l.}\frac{b}{H}\right\} = \frac{1}{Ma}\left\{\text{. log.}\left(\frac{a+b}{a+H}\right) - \log.\frac{b}{H}\right\}$, if $M = .43429$ &c.

From this formula, Mr. L. calculates the progressive cooling of a hollow tin ball, six inches in diameter, filled with boiling water: but the table, as it appears to us, merely gives the proportional time; thus making $a=50$, $H=100$, $b=98$, we have $t = \frac{1}{Ma}.0029443 = \frac{2.9443}{1000\,Ma}$. If $b=50$, $t = \frac{1}{Ma}.1249387 = \frac{124.9387}{1000\,Ma}$; the proportion between which times agrees with that of Mr. Leslie: but, to know the actual time, we must learn from experiment the observed time corresponding to the loss of a certain portion of heat, 1 degree for instance; and we are surprised that the author should not have put his theory to the test, by comparing the times resulting from the preceding formula with observed times.

By an application of the above form, Mr. L. calculates the range, and consequently determines the portion of heat spent in each particle of time. For a tin ball, it $= \frac{50+b}{50}\left(\frac{1}{1000\,M}\right)$; for a painted ball, $\frac{110+b}{50}\left(\frac{1}{1000\,M}\right)$. In each expression, $\frac{b}{50}\cdot\frac{1}{1000\,M}$ measures the effect of the slow perpendicular force excited in the contiguous atmosphere; and $\frac{1}{1000\,M}$ and $\frac{11}{5}\,\frac{1}{1000\,M}$, represent the effects of the other causes of refrigeration, differing in the metallic and painted ball, on account of the inequality of their pulsatory energies. Hence $8P - P$ or $7P = \frac{6}{5.1000\,M}$; and $P = \frac{6}{35.1000\,M}$. Again, at an equilibrium of temperature between the conterminous surfaces, $b=0$; and the portion of heat spent (calculating by the formula) $= \frac{50}{50.1000\,M}$; hence $\frac{50}{50.1000\,M} - \frac{6}{35.1000M} = \frac{29}{35.1000\,M}$ measures the quantity of heat conducted away through the stationary mass of the surrounding air. Therefore, says Mr. L., from a hollow

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hollow sphere 6 inches in diameter, filled with boiling water, the portions of heat discharged every minute are thus represented:

By abduction, the 524,1485th,
By recession, the $h \times 21714.725$th, and
By pulsation, the 2533.385th for metallic,
and the 316.673d for the surface of paper.

This is, we trust, a faithful account of Mr. L.'s analysis of the process of the cooling of heated vessels in atmospheric air:—the real cause of the difference in the rates of cooling is pulsation.—The author then applies his theory of the process of cooling to explain an anomaly that shewed itself in one of his experiments; viz. when the painted surface of the canister was turned towards the reflector, and the bulb of the thermometer was covered with tin foil, the effect indicated was 22 degrees: when the metal surface was used, and the bulb was covered, the effect indicated was only 12 degrees: the procedure then being inverted, the same effects did not take place. The cause is thus assigned: the metallic bulb cools slower than the glass, and consequently is *proportionally* more affected by the same impression of heat.

Here our limits oblige us to pause: but we hope to resume this report in our next Number.

[*To be continued.*] **R.W.**

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,
For SEPTEMBER, 1804.

POETRY.

Art. 12. *Syr Reginalde*; or the Black Tower; a Romance of the 12th Century. With Tales and other Poems. By Edward Wedlake Brayley and William Herbert. Crown 8vo. pp. 170. 5s. Boards. Vernor and Hood.

THE modest apology which is offered by the joint authors of this volume, for any defects in their performances, is adapted to conciliate the severest critic. The productions, themselves, however, with all their "imperfections on their head," plead too forcibly for favour and indulgence to admit of much severity on our part; and though they certainly are not so correct in many respects as the laws of poetry and metre require, they exhibit many tokens of genius and talents, which, under due care and cultivation, may in time attain a sterling value. The story of the Devil and the Lawyer is more droll than poetical, and we extract a part of it to amuse the reader:

'A rogue of a Lawyer rode out one day;
O'er a desolate heath he gallop'd away:
The wind chilly blew, and the rain fell fast,
And the Lawyer shook at the sound of the blast.

'In

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'In the midst of the heath stood an old oak tree,
And the form of its branches was lovely to see;
And this beautiful oak as the Lawyer rode under,
Was sever'd in twain by the loud-rolling thunder.

'More cold blew the wind—more fell howl'd the blast,
The Lawyer thought ev'ry moment his last;
When, to add to his fear, he espied on the road,
A monstrous, and ugly, black, venomous toad.

'The blood of the Lawyer was chill'd at the sight,
And even his horse started back with affright;
For most foul was the toad, most enormous its size,
And the living fire seem'd to flash from its eyes.

'The Lawyer could hardly keep firm on his seat,
His pulse for an instant neglected to beat;—
When, raising his hand, he his whip gave a smack,
And the monster, so venomous, struck on the back.

'But, alas! how his frame shook with agoniz'd wonder,
As the reptile's dark skin he saw parting asunder,
And beheld on his haunches the AUTHOR OF EVIL!
"As I live," cried the wretch, "'tis *Old Nick!* 'tis the *Devil.*"

'The Devil leap'd up with a horrible cry,
And his stature was quickly eleven feet high!—
His forehead and cheeks were glowing with flame,
And he seem'd to rejoice at the sound of his name.

'O'er his shoulders a quiver of arrows was thrown,
In his right claw he grasp'd a huge marrow-bone;—
In his left, a large roll of sulphur burnt blue,
For pastime to smoke when he'd nought else to do.

'The Lawyer, with fear grew as pale as a corse,
And thrilling with dread, turn'd the head of his horse;
Then back o'er the heath flew as swift as the wind,
In hopes to leave hell's grimly monarch behind.

'More cold blew the wind,—more fell howl'd the blast,
The Lawyer thought every moment his last;
Every tooth in his head chatter'd quick with his fears,
For the cry of the Devil still rung in his ears.'

'So the Devil flew away with the Lawyer's soul'

is a line on which no comment is required, if it be meant for plain prose. More experience will, we doubt not, teach the authors to correct these faults; and we had rather see tokens of genius accompanied with blemishes, than mediocrity with dull correctness. Man.

Art. 13. *Poems on several Occasions.* By Charles Crawford, Esq. Crown 8vo. 2 Vols. 7s. Boards. Becket.

The first of these volumes is occupied by a poem in six books, intitled The Christian: the second contains—Richmond-Hill—The

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Dying Prostitute—Augusta and Sophronia—The Forsaken Maid—Ode on Spring—On Adversity—Verses on the Recovery of a young Lady from Sickness—The Jasmin—Epitaph—Lines on the Death of John Wesley—Imitation of a Passage in Job—The Oak—Paraphrase of the Sermon on the Mount—The Restoration of Jerusalem. In proportion to our approbation of the virtuous and amiable tendency of Mr. Crawford's writings, must be our regret on being restrained by the laws of our Court from paying any high compliments to his Muse: but, as we have remarked, till we are ourselves disgusted with the repetition, good meaning is not a sufficient atonement for bad poetry, when a man professedly undertakes to delight us with the charms of verse. The subject of the first poem is capable of the richest embellishment, or rather is a theme which furnishes the richest and noblest thoughts: to discuss it, then, in tame numbers, must disappoint; and what other character do the following lines exhibit?

'In pain and danger hence undaunted be,
And tread upon the Roman constancy:
And be than all their vaunted heroes more,
Above their history, their fable soar.'

Mr. C. is little attentive to the *lucidus ordo*; for, in the formation of his lines, words are greatly transposed. Thus,

'Castalia, sweeter than, O Thames, flow thine.'

'Oft has my mind deprest new vigor found,
As if the Muse her inspiration *round*,
As on a fav'rite hallow'd mount had thrown
Enamour'd, and had made it all her own.'

The man of taste will be able to appreciate Mr. C's poetical merit from the *Ode to Adversity*, which we shall transcribe entire.

'O thou dread pow'r, whose ruthless sway,
The gen'ral race of men obey;
Full many a keen vindictive dart
Of thine, has pierc'd my lab'ring heart;
Which my faults urg'd, or others' spite
To point has ta'en unkind delight.
Yet many of thy stings and scorn,
Right manfully for years I've borne.
O grant that I henceforth may know,
For oft these gifts thou deign'st bestow,
A feeling yet a patient mind,
Which is delib'rate and resign'd;
Which keeps a firm and equal state,
Though tender not effeminate;
That always for another's woe,
The tear of Sympathy may flow;
But let me weakly ne'er lament,
With heart-corroding Discontent,
The heav'n-appointed cares of man,
Which is as impious as 'tis *vain*.
Yet when I feel the chast'ning rod,
Of my Friend, Father, and my God,

Let

Let me dejected in the dust,
Confess the punishment is just,
And may it happily improve
My filial reverence and love.
Thus Hope from Piety that's bred,
Shall rise upon thy *foot stool head,*
Above this vale of tears aspire,
Like great Elijah in his car of fire,
And in exultant joy be driv'n,
To all the deathless bliss of heav'n.'

We do not see the propriety of calling these lines an ode, any more than we can find a rhime in *man* and *vain;* or can comprehend what is meant by the head of a foot-stool.

Mo.y.

Art. 14. *The Judge;* or an Estimate of the Importance of the Judicial Character, occasioned by the Death of the late Lord Clare, Lord Chancellor of Ireland. A Poem, in Three Cantos. By the Rev. Jerome Alley, Chaplain to the Right Honourable Lord Sheffield, &c. Crown 8vo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Vernor and Hood.

In the description of an upright and impartial Judge, this author makes many pertinent reflections on the duties which belong to that venerable character, when it is supported with ability and integrity; and in the course of the poem several handsome compliments are paid to the memory of the late Lord Chancellor Clare of Ireland, whom the poet represents as an illustrious example of the virtues which he describes. While the author passes this encomium on the exalted virtues of that nobleman, he takes occasion to point out defects which degrade the sacred office of a Judge, and, although but rarely, stain the annals of our history. By means of this contrast, the meritorious pattern of Lord Clare is rendered still more conspicuous, and his memory shines with redoubled lustre.

With regard to the composition of this poem, we shall endeavour to imitate the example represented in it, and to administer impartial justice from our "awful Bench."—Passages may be selected from different parts of the composition, which, taken separately, will please and be approved: but, as a *whole*, it is not calculated to excite any great degree of admiration. It wants force and animation to rouse and attract the reader's attention; and, in the use of figurative language, the metaphor is overstrained, and loses its beauty and effect. For instance, (p. 36,) in describing the grave as uttering the voice of admonition, the author compares it to the Athenian Lyceum, and every bone is said to be an Aristotle philosophizing to mankind.

'Yet that earth,
Fresh from the delving spade, might well awake
Far different thought. It is a volume, rich
In precious wisdom; a Lycæan school,
Where every bone becomes a Stagyrite,
Skill'd in such inference, as should make the heart
Of each poor frail one quake.'

This is a laughable *conceit*. The figure was *bold enough*, when the comparison was between the grave and a volume of precious wisdom! There the author should have stopped.—Again, at p. 45, the figure prosopopœia, which has a very happy effect in poetry when temperately employed, is carried to such length that almost every noun for two pages is brought on the stage of human life, and made to act a part in this crowded *Phantasmagoria*. Again, when the author in his zealous affection for the character which he describes, (p. 19.) speaks of the virtuous Judge whom 'he venerates as a God,' how can we acquit the reverend Divine, at our tribunal, of the charge of idolatry?

To shew that there are other passages, which deserve commendation, we make one short extract, describing the character of a good landlord:

'For he felt,
As man, for man; he watch'd, with anxious eye,
The humblest cottage right; and—not like those,
Who o'er their lands with tyrant folly rule,
Till, a whole province ruin'd, they remain
The living pyramids of unpeopled wilds!
He lov'd the little hamlet; lov'd and sooth'd
The toiling tenant, and gave *Hope to twine*
The *peasant's sickle with her fairy flowers*.
Hence, o'er his grounds, no sorrowing vassal sigh'd,
Pampering a despot's carl no wretched race
Of starving slaves proclaim'd the landlord's guilt.
Peace, and her sister Plenty, led the flocks
That o'er his pastures stray'd; or held the plough
That furrow'd his rich glebe.'

Here the personification adds to the beauty of the image, and the office of Hope is peculiarly poetical.—We shall only add that several sensible notes accompany the poem; and we particularly approve of one, in which the author speaks the sentiments of a true Englishman respecting *Patriotism*, and pays in the meantime a grateful tribute to his patron Lord Sheffield.

Art. 15. *The Lewes Library Society*; a Poem. By John Button, jun. of the Classical and Commercial Academy, Cliff, Lewes, 4to. 3s. Button and Co. &c.

We need not descant on Library-Societies as being the most cheap, useful, and amusing institutions which can be established in country towns. They afford not only a permanent but a growing fund of instruction, and must obtain the good wishes, if not the actual patronage, of all those who are friends to the diffusion of knowlege. As we rank ourselves in this class, we perused with satisfaction the account of the establishment and progress of the Library-Society at Lewes; and, from Mr. Button's well-written preface, we conceived hopes of finding a laudable institution embellished and recommended by the fascinating attractions of the Muse. Having also mentioned friends who had perused his Poem with a critical eye, and who had favored him with their suggestions, we were prepared (though these suggestions might not have been implicitly adopted) for that dish of

literary luxury, a correct and polished Poem. Alas!—but let us not 'damp the gen'rous ardour of the bard', if we attempt to convince him that he would have pleased a greater number of readers, and have incurred no danger of 'losing his ass,' (to use his own comparison,) had the hints of his critical friends been more regarded.

Poetry has the property of elevating its subject: how Mr. Button has succeeded in this respect, let his view of the Lewes book-society declare:

'Doctors their drugs forsake, and swains their fields,
To cull the choicer fruits which science yields:
Grocers neglect their sugar and bohea,
And e'en attornies here forget their fee.'

The account of the ballotting for members is not more happy: but when Mr. B. proceeds to detail the contents of the library, he makes some little amends in describing the Encyclopædia, by his translation of the motto from Lucretius:

Floriferis ut apes in saltibus omnia libant,
Omnia nos——

'And, as the bee from ev'ry flow'r that blows,
The nettle blossom, or the fragrant rose,
With small proboscis sucks the honied sweet,
And humming bears it to his thatch'd retreat,
They from each book the worthier part compress'd,
Revive the ancient, and the crude digest;
Lop the redundant, the defects supply,
And wand'ring phrases bind in closer tie.'

As a grammarian, how could Mr. Button suffer the following couplet to stand?

'But far the most from Lewes' pop'lous site
Her sons repair, and in the cause unite.'

'August *ripes* the ear' is not now admissible, for we must distinguish the verb to *ripen* from the adjective *ripe*; and 'rouses rage' is a vulgar alliteration, which should be avoided in poetry.

For the sake of a word to make out his rhime, Mr. B. has stocked Lewes with men of philosophic genius:

'To suit the various genius of the throng,
These shelves to mild philosophy belong.'

Perhaps Mr. Belsham's History of the present reign may stand in the library by the side of Lord Littleton's History of Henry II.: but what reason can there be for joining them together in the same couplet? What a chronological jump backward from the first to the second line!

'And ample scope to BELSHAM'S pen affords:
The second HENRY'S LITTLETON records.'

After having celebrated the praise of Dr. Johnson, Mr. B. subjoins this *set-off*:

'Here would I close—but Truth forbids the pause,
And blame is mingled with the warm applause;

His

His rankling bosom prejudice distain'd,
And Scotsmen scorn the breast where envy reign'd.'

The last line should have contained a proof of the Doctor's prejudice and illiberality, of which his visit to Scotland furnishes many instances: but, instead of confirming his assertion respecting Dr. Johnson, Mr B. only tells us,—which indeed is nothing to the purpose, that 'Scotsmen scorn the envious.'

These strictures may suffice to shew Mr. B. that his poem is capable of improvement. Mo.y.

Art 16. *Our Country*. A Poem. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard. 1804.

By such a subject as that which this poet has chosen, we are disarmed of all the feelings that are supposed to belong to our censorial office, and are induced to welcome the writer with the most perfect good nature: '*Cari sunt parentes, cari liberi, propinqui, familiares: sed omnis omnium caritatis patria una complexa est.*' He who is not now alive to this noble sentiment of Cicero is altogether unworthy of the privileges and blessings resulting from the British Constitution. To the poet before us, no reproach of this kind belongs. His patriotism burns with a noble brightness; and he has endeavoured, by the effusions of his Muse, to inspire every Briton with reflections and sentiments suitable to the present state and exigencies of our Country. Writing from the heart, and with a true zeal in the important cause in which we are now embarked, his numbers are not destitute of force; and if we occasionally encounter a weak line or a bad rhime, we are made amends by the spirit and animation thrown over the whole.

The consequences which would result from the triumphs of the enemy are detailed in such a manner as to awaken our liveliest sensibilities, and to fix in the bosom of every Briton, if it were not fixed already, the determined resolution of conquering or perishing in the conflict; the determined resolution of not surviving the independence of his country. When France threatens to invade such a land as ours; to blot us from the list of Nations; to deprive us of all that gives dignity to the social state, and renders life valuable; there can be but one sentiment pervading the community;—the citizen hastens to share each danger of the soldier, and prefers death to that scene of horror which must result from pusillanimity.

The ardor evinced by the volunteers, so honorable and so necessary on the present occasion, is thus described by the poet:

'But hark! what notes of glory strike my ear,
Fly through the skies, and cleave the trembling air!
To arms! to arms! ten thousand trumpets sound;
To arms! to arms! the echoing hills rebound:
A million heroes to their banners fly,
Resolv'd to conquer, or prepar'd to die:
High swell their breasts, high beat their generous hearts!
From their bright eyes indignant lustre darts!
Hark, with exulting shouts the valleys ring!
"Conquest or Death, our Country and our King!"
'Twas thus when Xerxes, glorying in his hosts

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Pour'd the vain threat, and gave the futile boast;
The sons of Freedom rose in arms sublime,
And chas'd the vaunting tyrant from the clime.
Proceed, illustrious band! the world's applause
Promotes your vigour, and attends your cause.
Proceed and conquer. Though unus'd to wield
The massy sword, and tread th' embattled field;
Yet in your breasts a generous courage glows,
Superior far to what a *foeman* knows.
No thirst for rapine, and no vain desire
Of false renown, your ardent souls inspire:
No! more enlighten'd, more exalted meeds,
Impel you forward to immortal deeds!
Ye go to save your King, your native land,
Your wives, your children, from a treacherous band.
Ye go your holy altars to defend,
From those who know no God, before no altars bend;
Hypocrisy's thin veil to pluck away,
T' expose a monster to the light of day.
Ye go to check profane Ambition's car,
To stay the horrors of incessant war.
Ye go the nations of the earth to bless
With peace, with freedom, and with happiness.
These are indeed our sons! your sires would say,
Could they revive, and view this glorious day.
And late posterity your praise will sing;
'Twas thus, they'll cry, when virtuous George was King,
Our fathers arm'd, and glorying in their cause,
Preserv'd the throne, their liberty, and laws.
While through their veins a patriot rapture rolls,
Beams in their eyes, and elevates their souls;
They'll teach their sons to imitate your deed:
For British laws to fight, for British freedom bleed.'

Though the author sounds the trumpet of war, he is no ferocious spirit: with patriotic courage he wishes to combine humanity: and he urges us to shew mercy to the vanquished and captive foe. Moy.

Art. 17. *Æsop's Fables*, new versified, from the best English Editions. In Three Parts. By H. Steers, Gent. 8vo. pp. 213. 4s. sewed. Harris, &c.

This version is intitled to approbation for the easy and familiar style, in which it is written, though sometimes the rhymes are not so correct as might be wished. The moral of the fable is in general well conducted, and affords either instruction or diversion, and frequently the union of both. We give as a specimen the application of the fable of 'The Mountains in Labour,' as appropriate to our situation and influence with authors.—

'Seek you to wield the epic pen,
And paint the feats of mighty men;
Take Homer for your constant guide.
Achilles must be drawn with pride,

Inexorable

Inexorable in his rage,
With valour that might hosts engage:
Ajax of brutal strength be found,
Dealing destruction all around:
Nestor, and wise Ulysses, join'd,
Whose councils sway the regal mind,
In eloquence must still be seen:
Thersites only, base and mean.
In history would you excel,
Great Ammon's worth and Cæsar's tell,
From Livy, Plutarch, take your rules;
Or should you from the modern schools,
Of warlike chiefs, your trophies raise,
Cornwallis, Sidney *, claim your praise:
Mourn Rion's lot, and drop the tear
O'er gallant Abercromby's bier.'

The volume is dedicated to the Earl of Carlisle. Man.

Art. 18. *Great Cry and Little Wool;* or the Squads in an Uproar; or the Progress of Politics; or Epistles, poetical and picturesque. Written by Toby Scout, Esq. a Member of the Opposition; and edited by Peter Pindar, Esq. Parts I. and II. 4to. 1s. 6d. each. Walker.

A lady, on being asked by Dr. Parr her opinion of his famous Spital sermon, instantly gave it by repeating the first words of the sermon itself, "Enough there is, and more than enough." In like manner, if we were called to decide on the merit of this satirical lucubration, we should repeat the first line of the title—*Great cry and Little Wool.* The satirist, of all other writers, should take care,

——————*Ne*
Pecori ad extremum ridendus, et ilia ducat.

We feel for squire P. P. who has afforded us so much genuine entertainment; and if we now take the honest freedom of telling him that *Pindarus dormitat*, it is not with a view to discourage him, but to prevent his thinking (which every writer is apt to do when his reputation *is up,*) that any thing from his pen will be acceptable. Courts, favourites, ministers, and the panders of power and state-intrigue, are regarded as fair subjects of satire; and those who cannot obtain high stations have a gratification in laughing at those who fill them. To this modern Aretine,

"Satire is no more difficile
Than to a blackbird 'tis to whistle;"

and the expectations, which were raised in certain individuals by the illness of the King, are ridiculed much after P. P's old manner, in the first part: but when, in the second part, he follows Mr. Pitt into his late retirement (or supposed retirement) from state intrigue, to the humble study of military tactics; when he attempts to involve the Minister in derision by telling us that his feats as a soldier consisted in

* Sir Sidney Smith.

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'killing a ram cat, attacking a dung hill, taking a bog-house by storm, stabbing an old sow, putting a score of oxen to rout, rending the stump of a tree, and cutting off the head of a mushroom,' we try in vain to laugh, and we only perceive that to be absurd is not always to be witty.

P. P. deals about his love and his hatred, his compliments and his sarcasms with a liberal hand. One of the Epistles is devoted to the subject of the P—— ss of W——s, and the stanzas are elegant and flattering. As the prime part of this production, we shall extract the Epistle entire for the gratification of our readers:

'O FRIENDSHIP, thy sighs I revere!
Sweet balm on the heart that has *bled!*
O LOVE, what a treasure thy tear!
A rich pearl on the tomb of the dead.

'How d'ye relish this *flight?* rather *rare*,
And *sublime* for the *lead* of these days!
And now let me talk of a FAIR,
Sweet object of pity and praise.

'To BLACKHEATH when the messenger came,
And announc'd the small hopes of a cure,
He expected a smile from the DAME,
With a purse for his news, to be sure.

'When she put her white hand to her pocket,
He thought some rare gift would appear.
Ah! her handkerchief only!—She took it,
SWEET MOURNER, to hold a fond tear;

'A tear to which FRIENDSHIP gave birth,
And LOVE, of the PASSIONS the QUEEN;
Pure pearl! had it dropp'd to the *earth*,
In treasure how *rich* it had been!

'When he said that the LITTLE and GREAT,
That KINGS, like their subjects must die;
She look'd *up* with a visage *so sweet*,
Bade *farewell*, with *so* tender a sigh!

'Her fate is uncommonly cruel—
Yet a lustre she casts on her race—
By the LORD, COUSIN NIC, she's a jewel,
And her *heart* is as fair as her *face*.

'But SCANDAL has always her *mud*,
At MERIT, *poor* MERIT, to throw;
Of ink has for ever a flood,
To blacken a bosom of *snow!*

'Sweet STRANGER! from splendor withdrawn,
On Wisdom and Charity bent,
To HEALTH, and the breeze of the lawn,
To the cottage of PEACE and CONTENT.

'COUSIN,

'COUSIN NIC, with the subject I'm fir'd—
Yes! I've really drunk *deep* of the stream;
Yet a *Goose* must be really inspir'd,
When the VIRTUES and LOVES are the theme.'

P. P. by profession is a satirist, but his forte is the soft and pathetic. Mo-y.

Art. 19. *An instructive Epistle to John Perring, Esq. Lord Mayor of London*; or the Proposal of an Address of Thanks to the Right Hon. Henry Addington, for his great and upright Conduct when Prime Minister. By Peter Pindar, Esq. 4to. 1s. Walker.

Mr. Addington would not be displeased with such an Address as P. P. has prepared; for while it neatly compliments him, it finishes with a sting in its tail against those who have succeeded him in office. Perring and Peter being both Devonshire men, the poet concisely sketches and contrasts their respective destinies:

'*Thy* Planet led thee to the EAST,
To fill with precious gems thy chest,
And *eke* with precious ointment:
Mine WESTWARD order'd me to roam,
And, after years, come loaded home
With *sterling* DISAPPOINTMENT!

And yet I'm not a *broken* spirit;
The PUBLIC has observ'd my merit,
As well as INDIA *thine*;
To which kind PUBLIC, low I bow—
Its *candour* and its *taste* allow;
For gratitude is mine.'

If P. P. should suspect that our diminished civility to his verse may be a source of disappointment, we hope that it will be *sterling* disappointment; which will give him good interest in his future intercourse with the Muse. Dº

Art. 20. *Il Fiore della Poesia Italiana*, &c. *i. e.* A choice Collection of Italian Poetry of the 18th Century, to which are prefixed some Historical Notices of the Poets, whose Writings compose it. The whole selected and compiled by G. B. Cassano, Professor of Languages and Italian Literature. 2 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Dulau and Co.

Among the various departments of literary traffic which have been carried to an unreasonable extent, is that of cutting the production of eminent writers to pieces, and serving up the garbled morsels under the title of Flowers, Anthologies, Spirit, Beauties, Selections, Extracts, &c.; and this species of book manufactory is least of all pardonable, when exercised on obscure or uninteresting materials. Taste and judgment are alike requisite to enable us to cull with profit and discernment from the multiplied store of literature and science. The object of the present collection is perhaps too limited to afford much gratification to the accomplished votaries of the muses. During the last century, Italy was not fertile in poets of the first order. She

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boasts indeed of Metastasio: but his compositions are more justly celebrated for harmony of language than originality of invention or warmth of sentiment; and the specimens, which have been inserted in this collection, are not the best that might have been selected. In justice, however, to the publisher, we may remark that the comparative scarcity of Italian collections in this country may have prompted his efforts, that several of the extracts are worthy of quotation, and that the text is very correctly printed. Two or three of the small pieces may amuse our readers.

L'AGITAZIONE.

DI FILOMARINI.

'Ruscel che mormori
Aura, che spiri
Sai, te ti aggiri
Quà il caro ben?
Ahi l'aure fuggono?
Ahi passa il rio!
Qual pena, oh Dio!
M'Agita il sen.'

AGITATION.

BY FILOMARINI.

Murm'ring streamlet, sighing gale,
Moves my fair one in this vale?
Ah! the gales in silence die,
Ah! the streamlet passes by.
Ah! in vain I sigh for rest!
Tumult wild distracts my breast.

A UN FRATE.

EPIGRAMMA DI PANANTI.

'Pentiti, a un dissoluto moribondo
Disse un Frate, perchè
Ho delle scale in fondo
Visto il Demonio che venia per te.
E sotto qual figura?
D'un asino.—Eh badate
La vostr' ombra v'avrà fatto paura.'

ON A FRIAR.

AN EPIGRAM BY PANANTI.

As a dissolute wag lay dying in bed,
"Repent, I beseech you," his good beadsman said:
"For, to tell you a secret—below in the hall,
The devil just now did my senses appall."
"And under what likeness?—"
"Why that of an ass,"
"The fear of your shadow,—so let the joke pass."

The biographical notices are very slight and meagre.

Muir.

MEDICAL.

Art. 21. *Advice to Mothers, on the Subject of their own Health, and on the Means of promoting the Health, Strength, and Beauty of their Offspring.* By Wm. Buchan, M. D. Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, and Author of Domestic Medicine. 8vo. pp. 418. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

This publication displays much good sense and benevolence. The author strenuously maintains the propriety of a careful attention to the dictates of Nature, in the various circumstances of mothers and children; and he contends against those injurious, though too common prejudices, which still exist on the management of children, and on the subject of female health.—We shall give a general view of the plan of this work, which we may with great safety recommend to the careful perusal of the judicious parent.

The first, second, and third chapters are particularly directed to the conduct of women before marriage, and during pregnancy and childbirth.

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birth. The disadvantages arising from the present fashionable mode of living are forcibly pointed out; while regularity, temperance, and a regard to every thing which may preserve the general health, are strongly inculcated. Dr. B. is disposed to prefer the employment of female midwives, because, as their time is less valuable than that of men, they are less likely to give a scanty and hurried attendance: but he requires that they should possess a licence to practise, founded on proofs of real qualifications. The use of cordials in child-birth is strongly and properly reprobated.

Dr. B.'s observations on the Nursing and Rearing of Children, in chap. iv., are divided into Remarks on the Influence of Air; on warm and cold Bathing; Dress; Use of Medicines; Food; Exercise and Rest. The early and indiscriminate use of the cold bath or washing is considered as highly injurious to the delicate frame of the infant; and he is decidedly of opinion that the temperature of the water employed should at first be that of the body, and be very gradually lowered.

Cleanliness is particularly necessary in the persons and linen of children: but nurses are generally too fastidious about the removal of that slime, which covers the bodies of newly-born children, and which easily comes away after three or four washings with a soft sponge and warm water, with a little soap in it.

With regard to dress, it should be simple and easy, and every kind of pressure should be studiously avoided, as tending to produce convulsions and other serious complaints. 'The only part of an infant's dress or covering, which may be applied pretty close, is a broad piece of thin flannel round the navel, to guard against any protrusion there, from the accidental violence of the child's cries. But take care not to make the pressure too tight, or you will not only hurt the bowels, but, perhaps, cause, in another place, a much worse rupture than that to which your precaution is directed.'

The purging off the meconium by medicines is a favourite but very hurtful and unnecessary practice; because Nature has given the first secreted milk a laxative property, which answers the purpose of discharging that substance much better than the productions of the apothecary's shop. Children should not be continually crammed with food; the mother's milk is at first the only nourishment which should be given to them: but pap may be gradually introduced, so as to prepare the way for weaning. 'The mother, after delivery, should be indulged with a few hours' sleep, to recover from the fatigue which she has lately undergone, and to allow due time for the secretion of the milk, before the infant is put to the breast. The child can suffer no inconvenience from this delay. Being replete with blood and juices, he has not the least occasion for any fresh supply of nutriment, till the mother is prepared, by necessary repose, to give him the grateful and spontaneous beverage.'

The remaining chapters of this useful work are occupied with Considerations on Dwarfishness and Deformity; on the baneful Effects of a delicate and enervating Education; on Employments unfavourable to the Growth and Health of Children; on Accidents; on Foundling

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ling Hospitals, and other charitable Institutions for the rearing of poor deserted Children; and in giving a Sketch of a Plan for the Preservation and Improvement of the Human Species. In this last, the author recommends, as an encouragement to the rearing of healthy children, that a premium should be granted annually to every mother, in proportion to the age and number of healthy children brought up by her.—An Appendix contains a principal part of Dr. Cadogan's Essay on the Nursing and Management of Children, which is now scarce.

Art. 22. *Discourses on the Management of Infants, and the Treatment of their Diseases.* Written in a plain and familiar Style, to render it intelligible and useful to all Mothers and those who have the Management of Infants. By John Herdman, M. D. 8vo. pp. 127. 2s. 6d. sewed. Johnson.

We have here the first of four discourses, which the author has written on the management of infants and the treatment of their diseases. It contains directions for the attentions necessary during the periods of nursing and weaning. The second discourse will treat of the Causes, Symptoms, Nature, and Cure of Infant (infantile) Diseases; the third, of their contagious Diseases; and the fourth, of the Management of their mental faculties and Passions.

Dr. H.'s view of the proper conduct during the periods of nursing and weaning agrees very nearly with that of Dr. Buchan on the same subject, which we have noticed in the preceding article. We have only therefore to express our hopes that the creditable exertions of this author, and of others who strenuously contend against those prejudices which still maintain their ground respecting the management of infants, may prove successful.

The present discourse is not altogether free from occasional Scotticisms.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 23. *A Compendious Treatise of Modern Education,* in which the following interesting Subjects are liberally discussed: The Nursery, Private Schools, Public Schools, Universities, Gallantry, Duelling, Gaming, Suicide. By the late Joel M'Cringer, D. D. F.R.S. A.S.S. Rector of the united parishes of Pigworth, Goosebridge, and Honeytown, in Middlesex—Vicar of Cornstead-cum-Haybury, in the same county—Prebendary of St. Glebemore—Whitehall Preacher, and Domestic Chaplain to the Right Honorable Lord Trainwell. To which are added, coloured Designs, both characteristic and illustrative, delineated by J. B. W******* Esq., and etched by Thomas Rowlandson. Long Folio. 1l. 1s. Boards. Miller.

Geoffrey Gambado, by being Master of the Horse to the Doge of Venice, could not have been better enabled to write a treatise on Horsemanship, than the Reverend Pluralist, whose successes in life are exhibited in this title page, must have been fitted to inculcate the principles of education. Indebted for elevation to qualities which cannot be suspected of any connection with morality, the Doctor does not profess a partiality for any of those sentiments which are termed virtuous. He is not alarmed at vice like some unaspiring squeamish

squeamish preceptors, but undertakes to point out how much of this ingredient enters into the composition of Modern Education. To prepare us for so beneficial a discovery, he thus translates Juvenal's '*Nemo repente fuit* turpissimus." "*No one can become a* COMPLETE GENTLEMAN *at once*;" by which we are put on our guard against the declamations of moralists; and apprized that what the antients rejected as the *turpe* we must teach our children to cherish as the *pulchrum*, if we would have them to be men of *finished* education. Now this most sage and important information must induce us to recommend Dr M'Cringer as a preceptor, with all the zeal which we should exercise in behalf of our old friend Gambado as a riding master. To form a *complete Gentleman*, early cruelty, early debauchery, drunkenness, gallantry, *disease*, duelling, and gaming, are *most indispensably* necessary; and to render the picture exactly what it ought to be, suicide must crown the whole. Can any loving parent, then, refrain from wishing that his son may become a *complete Gentleman*? Who can even look at the designs which embellish and illustrate this precious fragment (for alas! the observant M'Cringer was prevented by death from finishing his sagacious treatise); who can observe the orderly treatment of the child in the nursery; the harmless amusements of the boy at the private seminary, and his sober exploits at the public school; his manly studies at the university, his proficiency in gallantry, and his mode of honorably killing without murder, his contempt of sordid wealth by risking all on the throw of a die, and his prudent method of escaping poverty by killing himself; who can survey all this without expressing due thanks to Dr. M'Cringer and his friends for their hints and advice; which, if *properly* understood, and *well digested*, may do as much good as some more elaborate and vulgar performances. We have only to add that the Doctor having been what is called "a *knowing one*," the reader must take it for granted that he is fond of "*quizzing*."

Mo-y.

Art. 24. *L' Italie et L' Angleterre*, &c. *i. e.* Italy and England,—each considered in one of her Children. 8vo. 2s. Clarke.

Such is the fantastical title of this small morsel of criticism. The children of the respective countries are Michael Angelo and Shakspeare, between whose excellencies and defects the author hints at real or fancied analogies. He cannot, however, dissemble that the Italian artist was indebted for his celebrity to the study of the antique; and that the bard of Stratford depended wholly on the resources of native genius; or, to copy the writer's own terms, on "spontaneous infused intuition." We will not say that this essay, which is ascribed to the Comte de Catuelan, is *vox et præterea nihil*, but it certainly displays more turgid *verbiage* than accurate and discriminate appreciation of two of the greatest geniuses who have adorned the world.

Muir.

Art. 25. *Flowers of Literature*, for 1801, 1802, and 1803; or characteristic Sketches of human Nature and human Manners. To which is added a general View of Literature during that Period. With Notes Historical, Critical, and Explanatory. By the Rev. F. Prevost, and F. Blagdon Esq. 2 Vols. 12mo. 11s. Boards. Crosby and Co.

Readers

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Readers of a versatile turn, who find it difficult to fix their attention for any time to one subject, will here obtain a relief for their wandering fancy, and a choice variety to amuse their leisure hours. Such reading, however, we consider as of no other advantage than the amusement of the moment; since new images, presented so rapidly to the imagination, make no lasting impression. Like the vision of the kings in Shakspeare, another and another comes; and when the volume closes, the reader arises from his sofa with the faint traces on his recollection, as it were, of a dream.

The introduction gives a cursory view of the more noted publications of the day; and we observe that the editors have occasionally done us the honor to adopt our remarks on the merits of some of these performances. Several notes accompany the extracts, and will be found worth perusal; and a few articles occur, which have not previously made their appearance in print. Mag.

EDUCATION.

Art. 26. *Practical Arithmetic,* or the Definitions and Rules in whole Numbers, Fractions vulgar and decimal, exemplified by a large Collection of Questions relative to business; including Rules and Examples of mental Calculations, and Abbreviations in most Parts of Arithmetic, with Notes. Adapted to the use of young Ladies, as well as young Gentlemen. By J. Richards, 12mo. 2s. 6d. Bound. Seeley.

This book contains a great variety of examples, sufficiently appropriate, and is offered to the public at a cheap rate. The author has judiciously introduced several tables, for the values of annuities, &c. but we wish that he had farther extended his plan of mental calculation. The aids of which the mind avails itself, in such calculations, are derived from the principles of the Science, reflect light on those principles, and create a habit and adroitness in compounding and decompounding. Persons in ordinary life, ignorant of reading and writing, calculate mentally; and an attention to the process which they carry on will often more illustrate the nature of arithmetic, than written elaborate elucidations. Mr. R's book seems well adapted to answer the purpose for which he intended it. RW.

Art. 27. *Dialogues Enfantin:* Juvenile Dialogues, in short and easy Words, to facilitate the reading of French. By the Countess de Fouchecour. Small 12mo. 1s. Highley.

It may be doubted whether any advantage is likely to accrue from placing the corresponding English on the opposite pages of books of education; especially when, as in this instance, it does not closely accord word for word with the French. It will probably lead the beginner to mistakes, which he must afterward take some trouble to correct. These dialogues are in other respects suited to the capacity of early youth. Mag.

Art. 28. *A General Table of the French Verbs,* regular and irregular; by which the Formation of any Tense or Person required may be immediately found. By R. Juigné, M.A. of the University of Paris. Folio Sheet. Dulau and Co.

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The method which Monsieur Juigné has adopted for this table of the French verbs is very clear and distinct; and we are inclined to think that it will be found of great service to the pupil, as soon as he is familiarised to the mode of consulting it. The only objection is the magnitude of the sheet, which requires rolling and unrolling, and is not so readily handled as a book. The antients used parchment rolls of this kind: but our modern form of binding is much more convenient.

Art. 29. *A Genealogical Table of the different Parts of Speech adapted to the French Language.* By R. Juigné, M. A. Folio Sheet. Dulau and Co.

The utility of this table is not so apparent as the former; and we much suspect that it will rather tend to puzzle and perplex the young grammarian, than to bring him acquainted with the different parts of speech.

Art. 30. *A Concise Treatise on the French Tongue,* &c. &c. By R. Juigné, M. A. 12mo. 2s. Dulau and Co.

This composition will certainly conduce to obviate the objections to the genealogical table; and it is well arranged, and very neatly printed. The distinction of different conjunctions, however, as *illative, causal, expletive,* &c. &c. is rather too refined and minute for a young pupil: but, in most of these matters, almost every thing depends on the felicity of manner with which the teacher unfolds these arcana of grammar.

Art. 31. *A Family Tour through the British Empire;* containing some Account of its Manufactures, Natural and Artificial Curiosities, History, and Antiquities. Interspersed with Biographical Anecdotes. Particularly adapted to the Amusement and Instruction of Youth. By Priscilla Wakefield. 12mo. pp. 450. 5s. Boards. Darton and Harvey.

A great variety of pleasing and useful information will be found in this volume; and either for those who travel through different parts of the British Empire, or for those who seek at home for some acquaintance with their own country, this tour will prove a very authentic and instructive manual. Aided by the publications of modern tourists, Miss W. has with great discernment and felicity compressed into one volume the principal circumstances worthy of note, which are diffused over so large a field in other treatises. A very neat coloured map, and drawn, considering the price of the volume, on a larger scale than could have been expected, is prefixed; and it contributes to render this work, as the fair author expresses a hope that it may be found, a very valuable addition to a juvenile library. A similar tour through the metropolis of England is promised by Miss W. as a sequel to this undertaking; and we shall be happy in having another opportunity of introducing to our readers the journal of so attentive and judicious a tourist.

SINGLE SERMON.

Art. 32. Preached before the Society for the Suppression of Vice, in the Parish Church of St. George, Hanover-Square, the 3d of

May 1804. By Richard Watson, D.D. F.R.S. Lord Bishop of Landaff. To which are added The Plan of the Society, a Summary of its Proceedings, and a List of its Members. 8vo. 1s. Cadell and Davies.

Among all the Bishops and Archbishops of the Christian world, perhaps no individual possesses a mind more vigorous by nature, or more expanded by genuine science, than Dr. Watson; from him, therefore, it would be a kind of miracle to hear a bad sermon. The composition now before us, drawn up for the occasion specified in the title, embraces subjects of great moment, and which the Bishop of Landaff has discussed with perspicuity and energy. Within the confined limits of a discourse, it was impossible for him to display at length the influence of national prosperity, and a crowded population, in corrupting the morals of a people; and to suggest the best means of correcting, or at least of counteracting, that influence: but he has stated the fact itself in a very striking manner; and by sanctioning with his approbation the proceedings of the Society for the Suppression of Vice, he manifests his persuasion of the fitness and beneficial tendency of the measures which it has adopted. The first period of the discourse contains an exhibition of an evil over which Moralists have mourned, and for which it is no easy matter to find a sufficient cure:

'Great cities have been properly called the Graves of mankind; and they may with equal propriety be called the Sepulchres of Virtue; the Nurseries of Vice; the Hot beds of Corruption, physical, political, and moral.'

When mankind are assembled in large masses, they always corrupt one another. Between extreme affluence and extreme poverty, every vice is generated of which human nature is capable; while the pride of the former, and the abjectness of the latter, render the one regardless of reproof, and the other insensible to shame. When such is the state of Society, what is to be done to reform it? For its amelioration, it is necessary to convince its members of the importance of religious principle, to lessen the contagion of vice, to increase the means of becoming virtuous, and to maintain a rigid execution of the law against all who are irregular, riotous, and disorderly. The Bishop justly observes, in reference to those moral establishments in Society which would conduce to diminish its evils, that 'a tenth part of that treasure which is annually expended, by the different States of Christendom, in unchristian warfare, would supply for ever the expense of establishments in every country, in which the morals of thousands would be amended, their idleness changed into industry, their profligacy into sobriety, their lives preserved for the public good, and the peace of Society maintained.' To urge the well-disposed to exert themselves in concert with the Society to whom the discourse is addressed, he farther remarks that 'he who lessens the vice of his country does more for its prosperity than he who augments its wealth.—To lessen the vice of a nation, is to procure for it the protection of Heaven; whilst to augment its wealth is, ordinarily speaking, to augment its wickedness.'

It is no doubt a lamentable truth that, in several respects, the manners of the people of this country have obtained an ascendancy over

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over its laws; and that Fashion and the example of the Great are of more weight than the prohibitions of the Statute-book. The Bishop instances Duelling, Gaming, Profanation of the Sabbath, and Oaths of Office, (he does not mention Ordination oaths, which might have been fairly put in the list,) and hence he infers that 'the laws are fallen into contempt, and *require the zeal, the activity, the discretion of such a society as this to renovate their vigour.*' Laudable, however, as we deem the intention of this Society to be, we are not sure that the renovation of the vigour of the laws should be left to the discretion of its individuals; since in some cases they may exert "a vigour beyond the law," and in others no vigour that is effective. Instances may happen in which, under the notion of suppressing vice, a kind of persecution may be inflicted: but we trust that the Society will be on its guard, and distinguish between practicable and romantic reformation.

Mo-y.

CORRESPONDENCE.

'To the MONTHLY REVIEWERS.

'Imperfectly as ye profess to be acquainted with the discipline of the Quakers, no wonder that ye have been led to understand that its whole spirit (M. R. Aug. 1804, p. 430.) points to the formation of a society, &c. As their affairs of church and state (unnatural mixture!) unitedly make up the discipline, there is not any 'whole spirit' to actuate the system. It has varied from the beginning according to the circumstances of the times, and the dispositions of the leaders, pillars of the society. In parts it is peaceful, philanthropic, evangelic, heavenly; in others it is mistrustful, uncharitable, superstitious, altogether worldly, and, in its effects, most miserably misanthropic. The Separatists in Ireland, 'too much Quakers for the Yearly Meeting of London,' (M. R. Nov. 1803. page ult.) much redeemed from this latter spirit, have not conceived the discordant idea, that a human being who may be already prepared 'for the kingdom' is yet unfit to become united to their families by marriage. A youth, of no sect, attached to one of these philosophic females, is not only kindly received by herself (I speak what I know) but by the Brethren, who cordially attend at the solemn covenant, without entertaining the notion of a fanatical Quaker or a Jew, that the marriage is '*mixed*.' 'J. W.'

'Salisbury Square; 11, ix. 1804.'

A Correspondent, who signs his letter 'A Lover of Truth,' seems, by the strain of his note, to have united himself to one of the two parties to which Vaccination has unfortunately given rise; and he cannot therefore be regarded as free from a portion of that prejudice which he supposes to attach to his opponents, and which in many cases has been applied to the adherents of both sides of the question. We know but little of the private character of the individual to whom he alludes, yet we are sufficiently acquainted with it to be convinced that many

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many of the assertions made by the letter-writer are ill founded. We are still not aware that any material fact, connected with the history of Cow-pox, has been omitted in the work in question; and we should have expected that our Correspondent would have instanced the gross omissions to which he refers, instead of indulging his personal feelings at the expence of his candour.

Vell.

We cannot very lowly bow to the expostulation of our fair Correspondent, *l'Amie de la Décence*; because we regard it as too serious and too little warranted. The testimony of all our long labours will shew that we ever regard the laws of decorum: but prudery must not always operate to the exclusion of matters of science, or of the traits of national character. In the case in question, both these objects were concerned.

The Rev. H. Whitfield requests us to correct the surmise introduced into our last Number, p. 424, by stating that he is *not* the author of the Novel intitled *Leopold*.

'*Inquisitor*' (whom we think we recognize) attempts to tax our pockets and intrude on our time: but he has no right to do either. The Post-office shall in future take care of us in one respect, and we shall take care of ourselves in the other.

We are much obliged by the friendly offer of A. Y.: but, on considering all the circumstances of the case, we are induced altogether to decline the subject of his letter.

We should have realized the 'hopes' which we held out to Mr. Pye, before this time: but the truth is that, after having long sought for his work, we can nowhere find it; and if it was ever received, it has been irrecoverably mislaid.

Mr. Wakefield's political tract has not yet reached our hands.

Our Correspondent at Belhaven Barracks is informed that we have on our table the publication to which he refers, and that we intend to give an account of it at an early opportunity.

The object of 'a Constant Reader's' solicitude will not be overlooked.

*** The APPENDIX to Vol. XLIV. of the Monthly Review is published with this Number, and contains a variety of articles respecting curious and interesting *Foreign Books*.

Errata pp. 58, 82, 87, 99, 106, 109.

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THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For OCTOBER, 1804.

ART. I. *Travels from Hamburgh through Westphalia and the Netherlands to Paris.* By Thomas Holcroft. 4to. 2 Vols. with Vignettes, and an imperial folio Atlas of Plates. 8l. 8s. Boards; (another Edition 5l. 5s.) R. Phillips. 1804.

TRAVELLING opens a wide field for reflection, since it presents, in rapid succession, various features of man, and affords opportunities of comparison which are not enjoyed by the stationary philosopher. The mind of the tourist is brought in contact (if we may so express ourselves) with a multitude of objects which impel him to inquiry, which relax his prejudices, and which tend to enlarge the sphere of his benevolence. Yet the view which he takes of the picture is not so extensive as he himself is apt to suppose; for at best his observations are circumscribed; and unless the imagination be restrained and tutored by a sound judgment, he will, with a fallacious rapidity, deduce general conclusions from particular facts. If he sees more than the person who stays at home, much still remains to be examined by him before the information of which he is in pursuit can be fully acquired; and his journals exhibit little more than the transit of an individual through the regions and the situations which he describes. When he hurries from place to place, his knowlege is merely that which is collected in public vehicles, at inns, and *by the way side*; and even when he becomes stationary, he has many things to learn, and many difficulties to surmount, before he obtains a thorough insight into the habits, manners, and character which discriminate the different classes of foreign society.

Much, however, depends on the mind and sagacity of the observer. Some individuals are gifted in sketching characters, in marking the traits which distinguish man from man, and in rendering current events productive of improving reflections. Such are the persons who should travel, and such is Mr. Holcroft. He is always alert, intelligent, and (we believe) conscientious. He strives to rise above the dominion of vulgar and obscuring prejudices, to paint with accuracy the scenes which presented

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themselves to his observation, and to render his narrative morally impressive as well as amusing. The volumes before us may not improperly be called The Travels of Mr. Holcroft's mind; in which, resembling Mercier in his *Tableau de Paris*, he is easy without levity, keen without illiberality, rich in remark without redundancy, sensible without conceit, and philosophical without ostentation. His reflections, though tinctured with characteristic peculiarity, are never laboured, but made with a *coup de plume*; and his strictures, instead of being the result of ill-nature or of national partiality, appear to issue from a heart desirous of promoting the general welfare of mankind. The French nation is the chief object of his examination and study; and, as it is of great importance for us to be well acquainted with the character of this people, whether we are opposed to them in a hostile attitude, or cultivating with them the relations of peace and amity, we shall survey with interest the numerous sketches which are here given. 'The grand purpose of my journey, (says Mr. H.,) was to examine and to endeavour to understand a nation by which, during twelve years, the world has been held in astonishment.'

Of the temerity of the undertaking, the author is not unconscious; for he says that he entered Paris shrinking and trembling as he reflected on the vastness of the task which he had imposed on himself. Having, however, married a French lady, of the family of Mercier, and resolving to domesticate, in order to study the manners of the inhabitants, his field of observation was extended, and his difficulties were diminished.

As 'by habits, manners, and customs, the history of man is most clearly and emphatically written,' Mr. Holcroft has minutely attended to these circumstances; and he informs us that 'there is one feature in the present work, in which it differs from all other books of travels; a method and arrangement have been adopted, by which the influence of moral habits has been pourtrayed. This, whenever effectually done, will most powerfully contribute to the formation of an universal and permanent code of ethics. If it be my good fortune to set an example which shall hereafter be pursued with the penetration and efficacy worthy of a subject so prolific of moral instruction, I shall but have done that which the nature of the work suggested, though it will not be less real in its general and beneficial effects.'

An universal and permanent code of ethics! what an unspeakable blessing would it be to the world, could such a code be established! If a traveller would throw his mite into the treasury of universal morality, he must be a true cosmopolite, and not misrepresent the people of one country in order to make amusement

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amusement for another, or to gratify his own illiberal feelings. It is in such a character that Mr. H. professes to write:

'I wish to ascertain and render evident national defects, that the nation of whom I speak may judge for themselves; and, by the repeated efforts of men who delineate them, be induced to correct them; also that other nations may avoid to imitate that which is injurious. Any attempt to vilify and degrade nations is base: but to awaken in them a sense of their mistakes is a worthy office. No man, alive to the consequences of national animosity, will seek to increase so pernicious a vice: there is in all nations much to dissapprove; but there is in all nations still much more to admire.' (p. 423.)

Speaking in another place in reference to his plan, he says;

'In writing the present work, I pursue a method which has not often been adopted, in books of travels. The form of a journal, the history of events indiscriminately as they pass, is almost inevitable, when it is the history of a transitory residence, a short stay at a great number of places; and such I was obliged to make mine, till my arrival at Paris. Here however my intention was to study the place, and the people; and here facts have accumulated, on a diversity of subjects, which inevitably class and arrange themselves under various heads. Had I continued the form of a journal, I should have given a collection of remarks which, valuable or not in themselves, could only have been desultory: and must often have distracted the attention, when they ought to have informed and filled the mind. I give this explanation, that the reader may at least know what I intend.'

Having thus endeavoured to delineate the sort of rambler to which the reader is now introduced, and prepared him for the journey announced in the title, we shall give some specimens of the entertainment and instruction which it presents. In the former part of this tour, Mr. Holcroft merely enjoys those means of rapid observation which are presented to every ordinary traveller. He journeys from place to place in common carriages, and has no time for diverging to the right hand or the left to collect materials; in consequence of which he is obliged, in a great measure, to confine himself to descriptions of the modes of travelling, of his companions in the public vehicles, of inns and inn-keepers, of the general aspect of countries, and of the principal objects in towns and cities. Being, however, a man of peculiar reflection, there is a novelty in all that he relates; and scenes, which would otherwise be insipid, are contemplated with pleasure, when viewed through the medium of his intellect and feeling.

Hamburgh, where Mr. H. had resided a year, is not left without a remark on friendship indicative of the man, and an useful hint (respecting lodgings) for the benefit of strangers. Hence he went to Altona, and during his voyage down the Elbe, he sketches the nature of the passage, and the character of the passengers.

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In a German inn at Harburg, he politely introduces his wife and children to the reader; and he draws the groupe so much *to the life*, with all the circumstances of locality, that we cannot exhibit it without exciting the liveliest interest for this little family during a most uncomfortable journey:

'I am ambitious of travelling in good company: or, to speak without a figure, of fixing the attention of the reader of good sense, and good taste. Now, in order that we may go on pleasantly together, our feelings must sympathize: which they cannot do, unless we have various common points of contact.

'I do not admire that shivering sensibility which shrinks from, and repines at every touch of rude necessity. What age of the world ever more forcibly taught how necessary it is, for the poor wanderer, to steel himself to times and seasons? But, though we endure, let us know that we endure! The knowledge is wholesome; and, to the wounded spirit, the recollection is a balm. The truth is, I wish to bring the reader acquainted with those over whom every social and every affectionate tie had placed me, as a guardian.

'Here then is my Louisa, with an infant yet unseen, but not two months longer so to remain; and another on her knee: a sweet boy, five quarters old, whom neither her burthen, nor fatigue, no nor intreaty, could long induce her to commit even to a father's care: not because she had fears, but because she had affections.

'On one side of her was my daughter, our faithful Fanny; as gentle as she was courageous; and on the other myself. We occupied one of the wooden benches of the waggon: it was hard, and exposed to every inclemency. The public vehicles, on this road, are all in the same state: unless you bring one, a covered carriage is not to be had. Ours was the middle seat; and behind us, and before us, were gentlemen and ladies, old and young. These gentlemen and ladies, well wrapped up in woollens and provided with snaps *, laughed and ranted like a hundred hop-pickers; and, whenever their talkative jocularity ceased, broke forth into a general chorus of "*Ach, du lieber Augustin, Augustin, Augustin* †.

'Their mirth was not refined; but it tended to exhilarate: at least it excited attention; and gave a sort of employment to the mind. How should we have been pestered, heaven help us, if, instead of these hale companions, we had had my lady's woman, and my lord's valet!

'I do not however emulate that excess of philanthropy, which pretends to find every thing good, and admirable. One man will tell me, I have not seen the world, because I am not a member of his club; and another, because I never danced at the assembly to which he is a subscriber. To each of these, the club and the assembly are the *world*. For my own part, I have been so hustled, and tossed, and driven about, that the worlds, on which I have been thrown, are too various for memory to retain. Even the world of a *fahrende post* is

'* Spiritous liquors.'

'† The chorus to a popular song.'

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far from being always the same: and to you, my gentle companions, it was totally a new world.

'It was the beginning of May, and about seven o'clock in the evening, when we set off. From Harburg to Bremen, at which city we intended to halt a few days, is only eleven miles.

"Oh! Then you were to be at your journey's end by nine that very evening."

'Ah, my dear madam, they were German miles; and the road, the postillion, and the *stuhl-wagen* were each of them German.

'We travelled all night, and all day, through a country so flat that no object was hidden; yet nothing could be seen, except cold and green nakedness; and arrived, with great difficulty, between nine and ten the next evening. I do not think these eleven German miles could measure less than seventy English: still however it appears strange that persons, who travel in a flying diligence, should be six or seven and twenty hours in going seventy miles. It is the fact. Had we gone two months earlier, it would have been much worse: we should not have slept in Bremen the second night.

'Louisa bore the journey with cheerfulness; wearied enough, 'tis true; but the shaking was little, compared to that which she had afterward to endure.

'Do not imagine that every where, as in England, you are driven to your inn door, step out, and immediately seat yourself by a pleasant fire; with a bell at your hand, and a ready waiter: who is clean, attentive, and expeditious, in hopes that he may excite your generosity. Fires, bells, and waiters, of this description, are seldom to be found in a German inn: and, further, we had the inn itself to seek.'

Fortunately, however, they were at last conducted to an inn called *The King of England*, kept by an honest Hibernian, where they found civility, a parlour fire, tolerable wine, and an excellent supper. Thus, as the calm follows the storm, so does enjoyment succeed to hardships.

When preparation is made for leaving Bremen, where the travellers rested four days, five *stuhl-wagens* are found necessary for the accommodation of passengers and baggage: but we will not detain the reader with a farther account of these miserable vehicles, dragging along through equally vile roads: rather presenting the author's reflections on quitting Germany and approaching Holland:

'Oh, what a cheering aspect have order and industry! As we approached the confines of the Dutch, the face of things began to change; and our hearts dilated with pleasure. Neat though small brick-built houses were here and there seen; with painted sashes, doors, and window shutters, green railing in front, and a garden behind. How consoling the thoughts, how endearing the recollections, that stole over us! We are many miles from Holland: yet the good example of its inhabitants is extending. We are still on the edge of vast moors; and those moors are beginning to smile. We meet with objects that even remind us of England; that distinguished

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tinguished country; which, with all its faults, affords the most useful, nay the grandest lessons of civilization, to the surrounding states.

'Though an Englishman, I hope I am not blind to foreign virtue: if so, I cannot be blind to the virtue I left at home. Every nation, and every man, is prejudiced: it is therefore the common duty of nations and of men to pardon, though not to affect ignorance of, the mistakes of habit and education. Few will deny that convenience is a good; and, whether it be habit or the inevitable nature of the thing, there are few who would not find themselves more conveniently placed, where they could obtain cleanliness, variety, and plenty, than where men, cows, and pigs, are under the same roof; and where the wants of these pigs are more attended to than those of the guest.'

From the German *stuhl-wagen*, we accompany Mr. H. and his family into a Dutch *trek schuit* for the purpose of visiting Holland. Here he makes good use of his time, but we cannot particularise the different objects which catch his attention. He could not behold that country in its present state, without lamenting the revolutionary depredation, of which it has been a prey. In Amsterdam, he observed that the people had not that air of serious activity which is common to great mercantile places:

'I inquired (says he) the reason; and this led to a mournful narrative of the present state of trade, the innumerable depredations committed by the conquerors of Holland, and the individual ruin, and general bad effects with which they were attended.

'I could but listen: I knew not how far political prejudice, or private loss, might influence the narrator. Yet he spoke like a true friend of freedom, appeared to possess excellent principles, and as far as I could judge, was only the enemy of those who, under the mask of freedom, had been guilty of the most odious rapine, and despotism.

'The subject is painful: the evils are committed; the good remains: let every wise man, whatever may be his opinions or his party, endeavour to render that which is good permanent; and, by mildness of speech and humanity in action, alleviate the bad, and prevent the return of misery.

'I left the house with pity for its owner, pity for the nation, and pity for all mankind. Is it not pitiable that it should still, at this hour, be the universal opinion that the sword is the weapon of wisdom? I say universal: for of what force are the few, who are convinced that it is the weapon of vice?'

Thus Mr. H. delivers his opinion on the effect of war on morals, when pursued as a system. The world, it is evident, cannot be enlightened and humanized by war; yet, while Ambition thirsts after universal dominion, and states preserve their independence merely by the power of self-defence, nations

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will not listen to the mild sentiments of philosophy and religion.

Perhaps we ought not altogether to omit Mr. H.'s chapter on Amsterdam; we shall transcribe a part:

'This city boasts of no high antiquity: six hundred years ago, no traces of it were to be seen. Its square contents now consist of eighteen thousand seven hundred and ninety geometrical feet; and it is said to be larger than Haerlem, Leyden, Delft, Rotterdam, and Dordrecht, inclusively: though these are each of them large towns. So watery is its situation that it is built upon eighty-two islands: which communicate with each other by the aid of nearly three hundred bridges. This is what I read in the Amsterdam Guide: in a manuscript account, I have seen the number of bridges stated at four hundred. Either of the numbers sufficiently denote the nature of the soil.

'The streets are many of them uncommonly spacious; some, such as the Heerengragt, Keyzersgragt, and Prinssengragt, I am told are upward of a hundred and forty feet in width. They are equally remarkable for their cleanliness, and goodness of pavement. This last is chiefly of brick; because, as there is a canal that runs in the middle of each street, some few excepted, the heavy carriages are much fewer than in other cities; and the pavement less worn: every kind of merchandize and effects being usually transported by water.

'The estimate of the inhabitants is from two hundred and thirty to two hundred and fifty thousand. I ought to have noticed, as a mark of the order to which the Dutch are so wisely addicted, that the bridges are regularly numbered.

'To give statistical accounts is no part of the plan of this work: but that the mind should conceive such a city in such a place, rising in so short a space of time, among so many waters and marshes so muddy, possessed of population, wealth, and power so great, influencing and subduing regions so remote, and contending for superiority with the most potent nations, this, in the whole and in its parts, is a phenomenon that offers the most instructive facts, to the profoundest thinker.

'The traveller ought to be a conscientious man; and very careful not to mislead: I would not propagate an opinion that every thing in Holland is great and grand. The prudence and caution of the Dutch seem to have been forced upon them, by a multitude of concurring circumstances: but the qualities, which in some respects have rendered them so great, have also led them to other habits, that appear to be wholly opposite.

'Enter a Dutch inn, and you will see the landlady with her cap in small plaits, her keys numbered at her side, and a worked purse under her apron, with three partitions; for gold, silver, and small coins.

'She has two kitchens: one for use, and one for ornament. She wishes the latter only to be seen. Go into it, and you are surprised at the order, neatness, and cleanliness, of its contents. Cast your eye upward, and you smile at a row of chamber utensils, hanging over her clean dishes, bright copper pots, and unsoiled sauce pans. It is

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a combination which could only have been made by a Dutch woman.

'Neatness, in Holland, is every where to be met with: but taste, I will not say no where, though certainly it is a very scarce quality. The people delight in trees cut into the shapes of animals; in traverse brick-work, the bricks accurately laid; in their doors and shutters, nay their churns and milk-pails, painted green; in Chinese awnings, hung with small bells; and in chimneys with weather-cocks, capped in the same taste. A Dutchman always wishes to know which way the wind blows: for he is often either miller, sailor, waterman or merchant.

'The passion, or rather the mania for tulips, appears as if it could only have originated where it did. The tulip is a flower of gaudy colours, but without scent: an object scarcely worthy the culture or the care of man: yet the price that has been given for a tulip-root has been sometimes as great as that which a proud man must pay for a coach; and more than sufficient to build the poor man a cottage, and buy him a garden.'

Mr. H. visits Rotterdam, where he finds reason to believe that poverty and filth are not entirely banished from Holland, is offended at seeing the temple of Cloacina in the kitchen, and hence takes occasion to praise the cleanliness and cookery of England: but if the Dutch were to turn travellers, they would occasionally discover Cloacina as much out of her place as she is at Rotterdam. At the Hague, where, after some difficulty, he obtained his passport to Paris from the French minister, he visited *the House in the Wood*; and his sentiments on this occasion constitute an elegy in prose, with the author's thoughts on the subject of Reform appended.

'I left the croud and walked into the wood. I wished for meditation; and here it was inspired, with painful abundance. He, who should not heave many a mournful sigh, to recollect what grandeur suffers when it falls, must surely be but a sorry travelling companion. In this wood, the palace of the Stadtholder is built. Along these spacious roads, how many sumptuous equipages have passed; how many princes of the earth have hurried; how many pleasures have rolled! The dancer and the deep politician have met: each busied in his golden dreams; each inflated with his own importance. The king of Prussia, Voltaire, and Vestris, said the latter, are the three wonders of the age!

'I have touched upon a false chord. Human weakness is indeed the theme; but it is rather elegy than satire: it is impassioned and full of plaintive ejaculations. "By the waters of Babylon we sat down and wept." How true, and therefore how beautiful was the thought.

'I pursued my road. At proper distances, boards were nailed upon posts; which had probably contained directions, and regulations, for the preservation of the premises. They were open to the public; and long had been a favourite place of resort. The inscriptions on these boards were now effaced.

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'It was near an hour, for my walk was slow, pensive, and full of pause, before I arrived at the chateau. Where were the lordly owners of the mansion? They were gone; fugitives in a foreign land; and it was become a coffee-house, or a tavern, or I know not what. I know the world needs improvement. I know that innovation, change, is inevitable: I am what I have been, an unshaken advocate for reform. But reform must be gradual, innovation tempered with mildness, and the people to be improved must consent to and aid in their own amelioration; or the whole fabric is of sand, which the returning tide will level.'

Antwerp was among the places in the Netherlands which Mr. Holcroft visited; and if the view of the Scheldt does not excite so bold an apostrophe as that which once proceeded from Mr. Burke, he is equally animated in his own way:

'Is there a man on earth who does not feel amazement, contempt, and horror, when he reads of Nero setting fire to the city of Rome? Is there a man on earth who will affirm, that the wickedness of setting fire to the city of Rome, in any degree, equals the wickedness of damming up a navigable river? In one case, the loss, however great, will be quickly repaired by time: in the other, the injury must be eternal; unless the injustice be redressed. Had it the power, the spirit of avarice, which dammed up the Scheldt, would dry up the sources of nature; or turn them into that narrow channel where their effects would be desolation, and destruction *. Can this avarice find pretexts and put motives in action for the continuance of such an outrage? Will virtue and common sense consent to its further existence? Time must determine; for things so incredible have happened that nothing is too incredible to be supposed.'

We must pass over that part of the journal which includes Malines, Tournay, &c. in order to afford space for the observations on the general aspect of things, as the traveller enters the territory which had long appertained to France. Though Mr. H. does not resemble Candide in thinking that every thing which happens is for the best, he has pleasure in tracing out the good, and turns with satisfaction from the dark to the bright side of a picture:

'Two things to the advantage of the present moment I can speak of, without any doubt or fear of misleading: the peasants are now better clothed, in general, than they were; and their looks I will not say are more merry but rather more sedate, yet more truly chearful. There still are many beggars among them: but the numbers now are not so great. If the large and spreading picture of poverty, I may say of wretchedness, be not exceedingly lessened, I am exceedingly

'* Since this was written, I have been assured by a merchant of Anwerp that the supposed damming up of the Scheldt is a popular error. It is a question I have not leisure to examine; though I have little doubt there is some foundation for the report. In any case, the reflexions are equally just.'

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deceived. The last day of our journey was Sunday; and we saw too many of the people, both old and young, cleanly in their dress and with satisfaction in their faces, for these signs of ease and better days to be mistaken. The rags, the poverty, the harassed looks, the livid tints, the pictures of misery, I had formerly seen, cannot be forgotten.

'There are men so misled by the impatience of hope, which magnifies one object and is blind to another, that they assert the change that has taken place is entire. A thousand miracles scarcely could so soon have produced such an entire change. A nation is a vast body; which, though it cannot stand still, is imperceptible in its motion: except at the moment of some violent impulse, from which it soon subsides into slow and unseen progression. Its customs are ancient, its habits inveterate, its modes of acting and of thinking were supposed by itself to be the best that human wisdom could devise. Such is the supposition to a certain degree of every man in every individual thing he does; or he would do otherwise. A nation is but an aggregate of men: and, however some may disapprove or censure the manners, general or particular, of others, each man being convinced of the goodness of his own, the nation, in the strictest sense of the word, is for that reason so convinced. Few have the sagacity to doubt of themselves. He who has that sagacity doubts but little. Where is the power that shall immediately induce a whole nation, that is, each individual of which a nation is formed, so to doubt as to detect the general and the individual mistakes? The French peasants have been relieved from the tyranny of feudal institutions, and are placed under new circumstances; and these circumstances must be productive of adequate changes. No man can pretend to discover them at the very moment, and in the very manner, in which they take place: but is it possible for any man to doubt that they are inevitable?

'There are peasants who affirm they were happier under their former masters: they make even bitter complaints, and feel deep and unfeigned regret. He knows but little of the human heart, who shall adduce this as a proof that the peasants are now actually more wretched. Scarcely the wisest man has the wisdom so to recollect himself as to be satisfied with the present. There are but few scenes, in past life, so marked by misfortune or pain as not, when remembered, to excite regret that they are gone, never to return. In such a town, in such a country, among such and such friends, how pleasantly says memory the days were passed. Faithless historian! Deceitful varnisher! How dismal and dirty was the town; how solitary and bleak the country; how dull, how insipid, how fatiguing were the friends! An old woman laments the days of her youth; an old man the days of yore.'

Arrived at Paris, Mr. H. becomes a more domesticated observer, and we may now consider him as standing on the theatre of attentive research, prepared to examine and to mark whatever may tend to illustrate the French national character. To assist in its perfect developement, he compares the past with the present, avails himself of the strictures of French writers, swells

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swells his pages, (perhaps indiscreetly, in some instances,) with quotations and well-known anecdotes, and disserts on trivial circumstances. Before, however, the reader is invited to accompany him in his detailed survey, he endeavours to possess him with an idea of that magnificent view of the French metropolis, with which the eye is struck on entering it by the barrier of Chaillot; though the brilliant effect, which this landscape cannot fail to produce on the thoughtless gazer, is here considerably diminished by the dark moral tint which this speculatist has thrown over the whole.

'If a man should enter this metropolis coming from Versailles, or St. Germain en laye, how great would be his astonishment at this first view of its magnificence. By a spacious road, between a continued double avenue of stately trees, he arrives at the barrier of Chaillot. It is but a toll gate; where cattle and provisions, arriving from that side of the country, are taxed; yet it is a superb building, with massy pillars.

'From this eminence, the grandeur of the view cannot be described; it can only be imagined. The objects of which it is formed are individually, perhaps, liable to much censure; yet they form a very extraordinary whole. It is one scene of a vast expanse of foliage, formed by the innumerable and majestic trees of the Elysian fields and the gardens of the Tuilleries, intermingled with palaces, the bridges and the waters of the Seine, and completed by the city itself, in perspective, and the lofty towers, spires and domes, by which it is overlooked.

'The man that should desire to enjoy a fine dream, a beatic vision of Paris, should come to this height, and look before him for half an hour; then descend through the gardens of the Tuilleries, and, having seen the *façade* of the palace, return without proceeding one step further. It would be food for imagination, remembrance, and regret, through life: he would everlastingly proclaim Paris the most astonishing of cities, the most splendid of the works of man, and undoubtedly the metropolis of the world.

'I once had a sensation, while contemplating this part of it, which I shall never forget. It was in the year 1783: I was standing in *la Place de Louis XV.* near the equestrian statue from which it then took its name; the palace and gardens of the Tuilleries were on my back; on the right was the newly erected magnificent pile called *le Garde des Meubles du Roi* (now the Admiralty), with the widest street in the city, terminated by the numerous columns of *la Madeleine*; on the left were the river and the *Palais Bourbon*, with the distant dome of the Invalides; and in front the Elysian Fields, with the grand vista and superb iron gates which then adorned the brow of the hill. Viewing it where I now stand, exclaimed I in ecstacy, it is the city of the Gods! Instantly recollecting myself, I looked at the people, who stood gazing at me while I was in this trance: they were in rags, many without shoes or stockings, and most or all with sallow famine in their looks. The very blood and marrow, said I, of these and their fellow-wretches, have been wrought up into mortar for the

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the palaces that excite this admiration. Would they had never been!

'It was a cruel thought; and such thoughts have had cruel consequences: yet there is so much justice in them, and they call so loudly for the serious attention of every class of men, that they ought never to be suppressed; though they ought most carefully to be so delivered as to produce good, and not evil.'

The author notices the street inscriptions, and the remarkable whims and ignorance which they display, the posting-bills, which he divides into four classes, the tricks of quacks, exhibitions, coffee-houses, public gardens and places of amusement, national festivals, &c. &c. In describing the present application of the *Palais Royal*, he delivers himself with virtuous indignation, and reprobates the Government which derives a revenue from the licence of the grossest crimes:

'Feelings which are painful become indignant and almost tormenting, when it is further known that such places are not merely suffered, because government is too indolent, too busy, or too weak to repress them; but because government is bribed: because government divides the wages of vice, the earnings of prostitution, the industry of cheating, and the spoils of the ruined. Oh, it is infamous! It is damnable! I care not what man, or what set of men, on the face of the earth, may take offence: it is indignation I never will repress, never will conceal. There is not a father, if he be not a monster, there is not a single friend to man, by whom this indignation is not felt. If the honest in thought would but be honest in speech, vice would not dare thus openly to brave the world; and that government that should licence it would crumble to dust.'

Well might Mr. Holcroft be surprised at the extravagant praise which has been lavished on this sink of vice; and well may he ask the author of "*Varieties of Literature*," whether this be the place which "no station, no age, no sex, no temper, could ever leave without an ardent desire to return?"

The national *fêtes* of the French appear to be extremely childish and irrational, and Mr. H. congratulates the English that they have no such festivals. He is persuaded that the object of the Government in their celebration is not to promote the love and practice of freedom, but merely to amuse a frivolous people, who, like the citizens of vitiated Rome, looked for nothing more than *Panem et Circenses.*

From the account here given of the annual exhibition of the inventions and manufactures of France, it is evident that our enemies have much to accomplish before they can rival us in trade. The exhibition at the Louvre, which was so pompously detailed in the public prints, was, according to Mr. H.—"a beggarly account of empty boxes."

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In the chapter on the festival of the 18th of Brumaire, subsequent to the peace, the traveller adverts to the "Proclamation of the Consuls of the Republic to the French;" and he comments on its first paragraph, which ought to have shewn us the hostile purpose which lurked in the breast of Bonaparte, when he looked towards us "with hollow smiles proclaiming treacherous peace."

'In the first paragraph of this proclamation the French are told, in terms too plain to be misunderstood, that the government had not yielded to the ambitious temptation to conquer England The words "daring and extraordinary enterprize" could have no other allusion. That ambition, which every man ought to regard with detestation and horror, is qualified as extraordinary. A thing no less extraordinary, than even such a rash, wicked, and inevitably abortive attempt must have been, was that every Frenchman, with whom I conversed, made not the least doubt but that France could with the utmost ease invade and conquer England. I hope to find an opportunity of shewing that there are few subjects in which the proofs, from moral and physical causes, are more unanswerable, more self-evident, more secure, than those which demonstrate that any such attempt must end in the destruction of the invaders, and the eternal dishonour of those who should send them to destruction.

'How much grander, and in what a different spirit, was the idea of uniting the one great European family, to guide and govern the earth! Not to govern by the sword, but by the powers of mind, by the introduction of knowledge, and all the arts of increasing civilization.'

The grown-up children of Paris are examined by this English Mercier in all their scenes of frivolity and mean parade; and he gives some ludicrous instances of the affectation of science which is displayed in the conversation even of fiddlers and shoe-blacks, and of the extravagant puffs of mountebanks and fortune-tellers. To the ignorance of the Parisians he attributes their indolence, and that habit of trifling which extends not only to things in themselves trifling, but through the whole economy of life. The institution of convents and monasteries is regarded as one great source of this evil among the common people. By tribes of monks were created tribes of idlers; and the charities, so ostentatiously doled out at the convent-gate, were in effect the bane of the poor; for they engendered sloth, which is a most fatal disease to a state. Though Mr. Holcroft still observes a strong disposition to pleasure, he is inclined to believe that 'the French are becoming less indolent; that the idlers are not so numerous, and that beggary of appearance is diminishing.' Still, he perceives a want of energy in the French character; and he feels himself urged not by any narrow sentiment, but by a regard to truth,

to

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to state this indubitable fact, 'that in those arts which are most useful, in those manners which are most rational, and in that public government, and private order, that political and individual economy, which can best secure happiness, the French are unfortunately far behind the English. Could I speak this in triumph I should despise myself.'

We are now forced to take leave of this moral and amusing writer: but we purpose to make him the subject of another article, in which we can safely promise our readers farther entertainment.

[*To be continued.*] **Mo-y.**

ART. II. *Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border:* consisting of Historical and Romantic Ballads, collected in the southern Counties of Scotland; with a few of modern Date, founded upon local Tradition. Vol. III. 8vo. pp. 420. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Rees.

AGREEABLY to the plan of the two preceding volumes of this work, which we noticed at some length *, the contents of the present are classed under the titles *Historical Ballads*, *Romantic Ballads*, and *Imitations*. The distinction between the two former is not very regularly preserved, and the latter, though pretty poems, are very unlike their prototypes.

The historical series commences with *Auld Maitland*, a traditionary song, which was rapidly passing into oblivion on the banks of the Ettrick. It is now published for the first time, from the recital of an old woman. The editor conjectures that it may have been composed about the time of David II.; though he does not deny that the language has been considerably modernized. The occurrence of a few obsolete military terms is no very certain proof of high antiquity: but it satisfies Mr. Scott, who favours us, in course, with his usual liberality of editorial annotations.

The closing paragraph of the preliminary remarks is worthy of transcription:

'It is a curious circumstance, that this interesting tale, so often referred to by ancient authors, should be now recovered in so perfect a state; and many readers may be pleased to see the following sensible observations, made by a person, born in Ettrick Forest, in the humble situation of a shepherd. "I am surprised to hear that this song is suspected by some to be a modern forgery: the contrary will be best proved, by most of the old people, hereabouts, having a great part of it by heart. Many, indeed, are not aware of the manners of this country; till this present age, the poor illiterate

* See M. R. Vol. xlii. p. 21.

people,

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people, in these glens, knew of no other entertainment, in the long winter nights, than repeating, and listening to, the feats of their ancestors, recorded in songs, which I believe to be handed down, from father to son, for many generations; although, no doubt, had a copy been taken, at the end of every fifty years, there must have been some difference, occasioned by the gradual change of language. I believe it is thus that many very ancient songs have been gradually modernized, to the common ear; while, to the connoisseur, they present marks of their genuine antiquity."—*Letter to the editor from Mr. James Hogg.* To the observations of my ingenious correspondent I have nothing to add, but that, in this, and a thousand other instances, they accurately coincide with my personal knowledge.'

This observation is ingenious, and highly creditable to the pen of a shepherd: yet, in our attempts to fix the dates of compositions which lay claim to antiquity, we should not rashly and extensively adopt its application, unless we are anxious to cut off one of the principal sources of internal evidence. It is difficult to reconcile the action of this little poem with real history, or its language with that of a remote period. Perhaps it has been patched and softened into its present form, from some more rude and disjointed materials.

Sir Hugh le Blond, also taken down from the recitation of an old woman, breathes somewhat of the spirit of chivalrous romance. A diction rather tame than antiquated, and the mention of a clock and a black velvet chair, are not symptomatic of a very early period.

The popular ballad, intitled *Sir Patrick Spens*, is here republished with more enlargement than emendation. The cork-heeled shoes of the Scottish lords, the web of silk, and the ladies' fans and golden combs, rather bespeak ideas of modern refinement, than the state of society in Scotland in the 13th century. After the vessel had sprung her topmasts, and the sea was making breaches over her, the knight, or his pilot, very deliberately resolves to *get up to the tall top-mast, to spy land*; an incongruity which does not occur in some of the former editions. The substitution of *Aberdeen* for *Aberdour* is at least unnecessary. The common and perhaps the correct reading is

'Mair than half owr to Aberdour,'

which may simply imply that the shipwreck took place when Sir Patrick and his attendants had accomplished more than half of their voyage back to Aberdour. The anxious waiting of the ladies for their lords is well conceived. The same idea is expressed by the author of Douglas, and in his happiest manner:

'Ye

"Ye dames of Denmark! even for you I feel,
Who sadly sitting on the sea-beat shore,
Long look for lords that never shall return."

The Dowie Dens of Yarrow, now first published, is avowedly selected from a variety of copies, with the accommodating intention of suiting 'these more light and giddy-paced times.' Thus concocted, it possesses considerable softness, blended with tragical effect. We quote a few stanzas.

'She kissed his cheek, she kaimed his hair,
She searched his wounds all thorough;
She kissed them till her lips grew red,
On the dowie houms of Yarrow.

"Now, haud your tongue, my daughter dear,
For a' this breeds but sorrow;
I'll wed ye to a better lord,
Than him ye lost on Yarrow."

"O haud your tongue, my father dear!
Ye mind me but of sorrow;
A fairer rose did never bloom
Than now lies cropped on Yarrow."

The Lament of the Border Widow, a fragment preserved by recitation, deserves to be noted on account of its simple tenderness:

'My love he built me a bonny bower,
And clad it a' wi' lilye flour;
A brawer bower ye ne'er did see,
Than my true love he built for me.

'There came a man, by middle day,
He spied his sport, and went away;
And brought the king, that very night,
Who brake my bower, and slew my knight.

'He slew my knight, to me sae dear;
He slew my knight, and poin'd * his gear;
My servants all for life did flee,
And left me in extremitie.

'I sew'd his sheet, making my mane;
I watched the corpse, myself alane;
I watched his body, night and day;
No living creature came that way.

'I took his body on my back,
And whiles I gaed, and whiles I sate;
I digg'd a grave, and laid him in,
And happ'd him with the sod sae green.

* *Poin'd*—Pointed, attached by legal distress.

'But

'But think na ye my heart was sair,
When I laid the moul' on his yellow hair?
O think na ye my heart was wae,
When I turn'd about, away to gae?

'Nae living man I'll love again,
Since that my lovely knight is slain;
Wi' ae lock of his yellow hair,
I'll chain my heart for evermair.'

Hughie the Græme was scarcely worthy of republication.

The poem of *Græme and Bewick* probably contains 'the very latest allusion to the institution of brotherhood in arms, which was held so sacred in the days of chivalry.' We may add that, though mutilated, it possesses some merit as a pathetic ballad.

We are duly cautioned against receiving the tale of William Armstrong, usually called *Christie's Will*, as a piece of genuine and unmixed antiquity: but we pardon its insertion on account of the interesting notes with which it is accompanied. From these we relate the following incident:

'Some time afterwards, a law-suit, of importance to lord Traquair, was to be decided in the court of session; and there was every reason to believe, that the judgment would turn upon the voice of the presiding judge, who has a casting vote, in case of an equal division among his brethren. The opinion of the president was unfavourable to lord Traquair; and the point was, therefore, to keep him out of the way, when the question should be tried. In this dilemma, the earl had recourse to Christie's Will; who, at once, offered his service, to kidnap the president. Upon due scrutiny, he found it was the judge's practice frequently to take the air, on horseback, on the sands of Leith, without an attendant. In one of these excursions, Christie's Will, who had long watched his opportunity, ventured to accost the president, and engage him in conversation. His address and language were so amusing, that he decoyed the president into an unfrequented and furzy common, called the Frigate Whins, where, riding suddenly up to him, he pulled him from his horse, muffled him in a large cloak, which he had provided, and rode off, with the luckless judge trussed up behind him. Will crossed the country with great expedition, by paths only known to persons of his description, and deposited his weary and terrified burden in an old castle, in Annandale, called the Tower of Graham *. The judge's horse being found, it was concluded he had thrown his rider into the sea; his friends went into mourning, and a successor was appointed to his office. Meanwhile, the poor president spent a heavy time in the vault of the castle. He was imprisoned and solitary; receiving his food through an aperture in the wall, and never hearing the sound of a human voice, save when a shepherd called his dog, by the name of *Batty*, and when a female domestic called upon *Maudge*, the cat. These, he concluded, were invocations of spirits; for he held himself

'* It stands upon the water of Dryfe, not far from Moffat.'

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to be in the dungeon of a sorcerer. At length, after three months had elapsed, the law-suit was decided in favour of lord Traquair; and Will was directed to set the president at liberty. Accordingly, he entered the vault, at dead of night, seized the president, muffled him once more in the cloak, without speaking a single word, and, using the same mode of transportation, conveyed him to Leith sands, and set down the astonished judge on the very spot where he had taken him up. The joy of his friends, and the less agreeable surprize of his successor, may be easily conceived, when he appeared in court, to reclaim his office and honours. All embraced his own persuasion, that he had been spirited away by witchcraft; nor could he himself be convinced of the contrary, until, many years afterwards, happening to travel in Annandale, his ears were saluted, once more, with the sounds of *Maudge* and *Batty*—the only notes which had solaced his long confinement. This led to a discovery of the whole story; but, in these disorderly times, it was only laughed at, as a fair *ruse de guerre*.

'Wild and strange as this tradition may seem, there is little doubt of its foundation in fact. The judge, upon whose person this extraordinary stratagem was practised, was sir Alexander Gibson, lord Durie, collector of the reports, well known in the Scottish law, under the title of *Durie's Decisions*. He was advanced to the station of an ordinary lord of session, 10th July, 1621, and died, at his own house of Durie, July 1646. Betwixt these periods his whimsical adventure must have happened; a date which corresponds with that of the tradition.'

The Duel of Wharton and Stewart, and the party ballads which relate to the contentions of the covenanters, appear to be misplaced in a collection of Border Minstrelsy: but they serve the purpose of introducing no trifling portion of historical detail. Instead of accompanying the learned editor in this extraneous walk, we shall confine ourselves to two short anecdotes which are not generally known.

'So little was the spirit of illiberal fanaticism decayed in some parts of Scotland, that only thirty years ago, when Wilson, the ingenious author of a poem, called *Clyde*, now republished, was inducted into the office of schoolmaster, at Greenock, he was obliged formally, and in writing, to abjure "*the profane and unprofitable art of poem-making.*" It is proper to add, that such an incident is *now* as unlikely to happen in Greenock as in London.'—

'The following tradition, concerning Cromwell, is preserved by an uncommonly direct line of traditional evidence; being narrated (as I am informed) by the grandson of an eye-witness. When Cromwell, in 1650, entered Glasgow, he attended divine service in the high church; but the presbyterian divine, who officiated, poured forth, with more zeal than prudence, the vial of his indignation upon the person, principles, and cause, of the independent general. One of Cromwell's officers rose, and whispered his commander; who seemed to give him a short and stern answer, and the sermon was concluded without

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without interruption. Among the crowd, who were assembled to gaze at the general, as he came out of the church, was a shoemaker, the son of one of James the sixth's Scottish footmen. This man had been born and bred in England, but, after his father's death, had settled in Glasgow. Cromwell eyed him among the crowd, and immediately called him by his name—the man fled; but at Cromwell's command, one of his retinue followed him, and brought him to the general's lodgings. A number of the inhabitants remained at the door, waiting the end of this extraordinary scene. The shoemaker soon came out, in high spirits, and, shewing some gold, declared, he was going to drink Cromwell's health. Many attended him to hear the particulars of his interview; among others the grandfather of the narrator. The shoemaker said, that he had been a playfellow of Cromwell; when they were both boys, their parents residing in the same street; that he had fled, when the general first called to him, thinking he might owe him some ill-will, on account of his father being in the service of the royal family. He added, that Cromwell had been so very kind and familiar with him, that he ventured to ask him, what the officer had said to him in the church. "He proposed," said Cromwell, "to pull forth the minister by the ears; and I answered, that the preacher was one fool, and he another." In the course of the day, Cromwell held an interview with the minister, and contrived to satisfy his scruples so effectually, that the evening discourse, by the same man, was tuned to the praise and glory of the victor of Naseby.'

Several of the romantic ballads will scarcely reward the trouble of perusal. *Erlinton* will not be endured by him who can relish the *Child of Elle*. *The Douglas Tragedy* was already popular; though it must be allowed that Mr. Scott has pruned some of its most uncouth extravagancies. *Young Benjie* and *Lady Ann* are more inviting specimens of the Scottish romantic song. The concluding stanza of *Proud Lady Margaret* reminds us of Bürgher:

> 'For the wee worms are my bed fellows,
> And cauld clay is my sheets;
> And when the stormy winds do blow,
> My body lies and sleeps.'

Lord Randal is distinguished from the other pieces by a lengthened, yet animated measure. 'There is (says Mr. Scott) a beautiful air to this old ballad. The hero is more generally termed *Lord Ronald;* but I willingly follow the authority of an Ettrick Forest copy, for calling him *Randal;* because, though the circumstances are so very different, I think it not impossible, that the ballad may have originally regarded the death of Thomas Randolph, or Randal, earl of Murray, nephew to Robert Bruce, and governor of Scotland.'

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We have already hinted that the Imitations of the antient ballad are improperly so called. With one or two exceptions, they indicate genius, fancy, and poetic expression: but they are destitute of the rude negligence, of the simple pathos, and of the abrupt transitions of thought, which characterize the elder lays of the Caledonian Muse. Without the preface, Mr. Leyden's *Mermaid*, though composed in pretty stanzas, would be unintelligible. The style is likewise too fine and *recherché*, and not wholly free from an affectation of quaintness: but the subsequent stanzas are graceful and soothing:

"Softly blow, thou western breeze,
Softly rustle through the sail,
Soothe to rest the furrowy seas,
Before my love, sweet western gale!

"Where the wave is tinged with red,
And the russet sea-leaves grow,
Mariners, with prudent dread,
Shun the shelving reefs below.

"As you pass thro' Jura's sound,
Bend your course by Scarba's shore,
Shun, O shun, the gulf profound,
Where Corrivrekin's surges roar!

"If, from that unbottomed deep,
With wrinkled form and writhed train,
O'er the verge of Scarba's steep,
The sea-snake heave his snowy mane,

"Unwarp, unwind his oozy coils,
Sea-green sisters of the main,
And in the gulf, where ocean boils,
The unwieldy wallowing monster chain.

"Softly blow, thou western breeze,
Softly rustle through the sail,
Soothe to rest the furrowed seas,
Before my love, sweet western gale!"

'Thus, all to soothe the chieftain's woe,
Far from the maid he loved so dear,
The song arose, so soft and slow,
He seemed her parting sigh to hear.

'The lonely deck he paces o'er,
Impatient for the rising day,
And still, from Crinan's moonlight shore,
He turns his eyes to Colonsay.'

In the next line, we are told that the 'moonbeams *crisp* the curling surge.

Mr.

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Mr. Sharpe, of Hoddom, approaches much nearer to the spirit of the old provincial lays of the Border. His contributions are intitled, *The Lord Herries his Complaint*, and the murder of *Caerlaverock*. One of his stanzas is worthy of Burns:

'I plunged an auld man in the sea,
Whase locks were like the snaw;
His hairs sall serve for rapes to me,
In helf my saul to draw.'

Mr. Lewis's *Sir Agilthorn* is a pleasing effusion, but can never be mistaken for an old ballad. His description of the happiness and contentment of a village damsel appears to have been borrowed from a well-known passage in Guarini's *Pastor Fido*.

Miss Seward has oddly blended English and Scottish phraseology in *Rich Auld Willie's Farewell*.

Dr. Jamieson's *Water Kelpie* will please adepts, more than poets or general readers.

The last of these imitations, which our limits permit us to notice, is *Cadyow Castle*. No author's name is subjoined: but, if we rightly conjecture, it is the production of the editor; and if so, it intitles him to rank high as a composer of romantic poetry. We can select only a few stanzas:

'He ceased—and cries of rage and grief
Burst mingling from the kindred band,
And half arose the kindling chief,
And half unsheath'd his Arran brand.

'But who, o'er bush, o'er stream and rock,
Rides headlong, with resistless speed,
Whose bloody poniard's frantic stroke
Drives to the leap his jaded steed;

'Whose cheek is pale, whose eye-balls glare,
As one, some visioned sight that saw,
Whose hands are bloody, loose his hair?—
—'Tis he! 'tis he! 'tis Bothwellhaugh.

'From gory selle *, and reeling steed,
Sprung the fierce horseman with a bound,
And, reeking from the recent deed,
He dashed his carbine on the ground.

'Sternly he spoke—"'Tis sweet to hear
In good green-wood the bugle blown,
But sweeter to Revenge's ear,
To *drink* a tyrant's dying *groan*."'

* *Selle*—Saddle. A word used by Spenser, and other antient authors.'

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On the whole, while we much applaud Mr. Scott's diligence, learning, and taste, we cannot help repeating that he has unnecessarily extended his work; and that, while he treats us with some beautiful flowers, he mixes with them thorns and noisome weeds.

Muir.

ART. III. *The History of the Reign of George III. to the Termination of the late War.* To which is prefixed a View of the progressive Improvement of England, in Prosperity and Strength, to the Accession of his Majesty. By Robert Bisset, LL.D. Author of the "Life of Burke*," &c. 6 Vols. 8vo. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

HISTORIANS have sometimes been divided into two classes, the philosophical and the rhetorical: but perhaps we should not decidedly rank the author of these volumes under either. There is another class, however, not mentioned in the list of technical writers, but which certainly exists; and in this we should be more inclined to place him; viz. that of the prudent historians. It happens to be the business of the earliest of these annals to narrate councils which were not the most wise, and to state measures which were far indeed from beneficial; and though Dr. Bisset does not shrink from this painful task, though both the councils and the measures are fairly set forth, and their mischiefs are not dissembled, yet, when we behold a course pursued that is unfriendly to liberty and is fatal to the interests of the nation, when human life is sacrificed and incalculable treasures are squandered away, when the country sinks in consideration, when America is lost, and when France is aggrandized, the mind looks for the authors of these misfortunes, and it looks in vain in the records now before us. The cotemporary members of the cabinet are represented as able, faithful, and loyal; one is a patriot and a sage; another is a profound practical statesman; a third is only anxious to preserve the constitution inviolate; and in one or two only is some alloy gently intimated. On the other hand, if the ministers are all thus wise and virtuous, equal if not higher merit is liberally ascribed to their opponents. All this is good humoured; it has moreover the semblance of impartiality; and we should certainly be the last to complain of it, if we could forget that it belongs to the department of history to chastise injustice, to reprehend presumption, to expose folly, and to pour down a due though it be a tardy retribution on the heads of those who, assuming great and awful trusts, are either

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* See Rev. N. S. Vols. xxvi. p. 361. and xxvii. p. 23.

unequal

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unequal to or betray them. It is peculiarly the duty and province of the historian to exclaim

"*Cuncti adsint, meritæque expectent præmia palmæ.*"

Whether it be that this writer differs from the moral critics who thus delineate the office of the historian, or that from policy he disregards their authority, certain it is that he does not conform to it.

While, however, Dr. Bisset shews this favour to incompetent and unsuccessful ministers, he does not undervalue any of the great rights and important privileges of which Britons ought ever to be jealous, but is the avowed and firm, though temperate, advocate of our liberties. His observations on constitutional questions are usually just, as well as ingenious; and if we meet with some of which we do not approve, they are few compared with those which call forth our commendation. As far as facts are concerned, we cannot impute it to him that he sacrifices the truth, or degrades the dignity of history; and if representations and apologies are occasionally made in a spirit which we cannot praise, the faithful narrative which accompanies them will prevent their having any ill effect, at least on persons of mature judgment. On the whole, then, the impression left on the mind is favourable to those principles to which we have been indebted for all that has hitherto distinguished us; and the work, though not free from many faults, and several great defects, is perhaps the least exceptionable of the histories of the same period. There may be too much justice in the Dr.'s severe observation on his predecessors, that 'they are rather repeaters of party notions and reports, than original composers of authentic history:' but it cannot be denied that they have much assisted and shortened his labours; and we ought to add that, by paying more attention to one of them, he might have rendered his own publication considerably more complete than it now is.

With regard to style, we could have wished that Dr. B. had discovered more solicitude to attain correctness and simplicity; that his terms had been as appropriate as his meaning in general is just; that his page had presented fewer inexcusable negligences and unwarrantable licences, and less numerous marks of that undue haste and imperfect revision which characterize too many modern performances. In a work so important, which will fall chiefly into the hands of youth, both duty to the public and the suggestions of self-interest should have urged the author to have rendered his composition as faultless as it was within his utmost endeavours to effect.

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The introduction shews that the Dr. has deeply studied the annals of his country; the events and characters of which, for the most part, he ably and justly appreciates. As preliminary to the history of the present reign, he very properly gives rather a minute account of the concluding part of that which preceded it. The administrative revolution, stated in the following passage, forms an æra so important in our records, that we are induced to submit to our readers the account of it here given;

'Ministerial influence in this reign, whether from the long continuance of parliament, or other causes, became much greater than at any former time. Corruption had been carried to a considerable length by the whigs, in the time of queen Anne, on particular occasions: but it was reserved for Walpole to establish it as a methodical and regular engine of government; and to bribe in a dextrous and circuitous manner, which might not only escape detection, but in some degree even impose on the receiver, and which might make him suppose that to be the reward of merit from his country, which was really the wages of service to a minister. Closely connected with stock-jobbers, and other adventurers, in projects for the acquisition of money, Walpole found, through loans and similar government transactions, various opportunities of bestowing indirect donatives. Nor was he sparing in direct presents. He appears to have been the first minister who thoroughly understood the mode of managing parliaments, and making law givers willing tools in the hands of the court. He first completely succeeded in identifying, according to the apprehension of the majority, compliance with ministers, and patriotism; opposition to ministers, and dissaffection to the constitution. George's reign is an epoch in parliamentary history, as, since that time, whether ministers have been able or weak, wise or foolish, they have rarely failed to have the co-operation of parliament in their projects, whether useful or hurtful. The influence of the crown was established on the most solid basis by the whig party, and the whig leader, sir Robert Walpole.'

As we have before hinted, the author fairly states the acts and maxims of the early part of this reign: but he gives them a colour which all persons will not admit to be that which exactly belongs to them. Actions and measures which some have attributed to favouritism, and have considered as indicative of high notions of power, he describes as proceeding from a laudable departure from old systems of political exclusion, and from the practice of confining administrations to a party. It is not a little curious that this salvo is first introduced in order to be applied to those arrangements, and the effects of them, which occasioned the resignation of William Pitt the elder. It is well known that this Minister himself never acted on the exclusive system, and that he was never cordially adopted by its partisans: but, admitting this to be otherwise, that was indeed

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deed a costly liberality which shewed itself at the expence of substituting weak and obscure individuals for a man of talents so pre-eminent, who had rendered services so signal, who was so fully invested with public confidence, who bore a name so much respected abroad, and who had known so well how to command success. If, as the author represents, this and similar changes proceeded from a determination to act on enlarged views, it must be admitted that, however creditable the intention may be considered, the event proved highly unfortunate; and it furnished another instance of the evil of too rapid changes, and of the little dependence which can be placed on theories, be they ever so specious. The result, though melancholy, was a matter of triumph to the whigs. If the political bigotry of the two late reigns had not been shaken off, the country would have been saved many occasions of bitter regret; for it cannot be denied that, while the appointments were confined to the pale of whiggism, the empire flourished, and rose rapidly in the scale of power; and that from the moment at which another description of men came into place, the nation experienced nothing but agitations at home and humiliations abroad. If, however, the author palliates the blame of the dismissal of Pitt, he is not reluctant in displaying the merits of that illustrious statesman. The ground of difference on which he quitted office is fairly reported, and his various claims are exhibited in a strong light.

We cannot coincide in the censure here passed on Mr. Pitt, for not continuing a member of the cabinet after he had been out-voted in it in a matter immediately relating to his own department. We think that manliness and honesty called on him to act the part which he adopted; and if a near connection of that great man has lately practised this trimming, we cannot discover that the fruits of such temporizing recommend or sanction the practice. Besides, it requires no sagacity to perceive that he was considered as obstructing the progress of another who was ambitious to obtain absolute sway at home, and to raise to himself a name in Europe; and that on this account he was destined to be thwarted, till his spirit should determine him to abandon the field.

He who charges others with being *repeaters of reports* ought himself to set the example of deep research and diligent investigation: but of these features we cannot say that we discover many traces in this history, while we certainly could point out numerous instances of the want of them;—one occurs in the account here given of the peace of 1763. Among other reproaches cast on the authors of that treaty, was an accusation which charged them with a desertion of the king of Prussia,

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and with a sort of treachery on the part of the Minister towards that monarch: but Dr. B. says that there is no authentic evidence to support that allegation. Archenholz, in his history of the seven years' war, having noticed the Minister's enmity to Frederic, asserts that he was so egregiously ignorant as not to be aware of the high veneration in which the Czar had ever held that great Prince, and not to be apprized of the clear proofs of it then recently furnished. He presumed that the new Emperor was desirous of retaining the provinces which had been taken from Prussia; and he offered to Prince Gallitzin, the Russian ambassador in London, to prevail on the Prussian monarch to give up such provinces as Russia might wish to keep: but Peter, we are told, wrote him a contemptuous answer, and sent the original proposal to Frederic. The same Minister, that historian farther says, busied himself in attempting to make peace between the Court of Vienna and the King of Prussia, completely without the privity of the latter; on which occasion he again made free with those provinces. Kaunitz, imagining this to be an intrigue to sow jealousy between the Courts of Vienna and Versailles, returned the British Envoy a very humiliating answer; saying that the Empress was powerful enough to make good her pretensions, and that it was below her dignity to conclude a peace by the intervention of England *. We are aware that the authority of this German writer is by no means of the first order: but he connects the charge with facts which ought to have been examined; and we see no temptations that could influence Archenholz to falsify in this instance. Supposing the accusation to be well-founded, a procedure of Frederic narrated in the same publication, and in other histories of the period, will serve to explain it †.

The most able part of this work is that which gives an account of the differences between Great Britain and her colonies. The result of the relation, and of the manly and appropriate observations which accompany it, appears to be in substance this; that the revolution was occasioned by the injustice, and by the weak and impolitic conduct, of the mother-country. The Ministers, the author contends, did not alone deserve the blame; since the Parliament and the people merit a large portion of it. Some actuated by a love of domination, and others influenced by avarice, anxiously desired to see their fellow-subjects deprived of valuable rights, hitherto enjoyed in

* See *Geschichte des Siebenjahrigen Krieges in Deutschland. Von J. W. von Archenholz.* 2 Theil. p. 270, 7.

† Vide the same work, 1 Theil. pp. 307—9.

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common by all who lived under the British crown. It is distressing to find our country engaged in an unrighteous cause; in which the virtuous and patriotic bosom is reduced to the painful alternative of beholding oppression and lawless power prevail, or his native land weakened and degraded;—and not merely generous sympathy, but a sense of common interest, policy, and expediency, ought to have urged Britons to oppose the annihilation of the rights and privileges of the colonists. This chapter of history is highly worthy of the perusal and study of all who are likely to engage in, or who wish to judge correctly with respect to, the conduct of human affairs; since it shews, in the clearest light, the mischiefs of precipitancy and resentment, when they influence the measures of governments; and how dangerous it is for rulers to tamper with the liberties and franchises of the subject. We do not implicate the nation in this blame, to the extent to which the author carries it; and we believe that, if the Ministers had not adopted the plan of taxing the colonies, the people would never have proposed it, or might easily have been led to discern its injustice as well as its inexpediency. Yet we are of opinion that, if Parliament had preserved due impartiality between the parties, that is to say, between the administration and our trans-atlantic brethren; if it had coolly examined the questions in issue between them; if it had acted on information and inquiry, and had formed its judgment on principles of wisdom and impartiality; and if the people, instead of suffering themselves to be led by false views of interest, had been swayed by feelings which were most natural to them, and which would have done them the most credit; then, in spite of the presumption and folly of ministers, the empire would still have been entire, and the world have worn another face.

Dr. B. thus sketches the varieties which, at the time in question, the several populations of North America exhibited:

'Placed in a rigorous climate, and on a soil requiring active and persevering industry to render it productive, the New Englanders were strong, hardy, and capable of undergoing great labour and fatigue. Having many difficulties to overcome and dangers to encounter, they were formed to penetration, enterprise, and resolution. Their country, less bountiful than those of their southern neighbours, rendered recourse to traffic necessary. The puritanism which they inherited from their forefathers, *with its concomitant hypocrisy*, incorporated itself with their commercial conduct; and avarice is never keener than after a coalition with fanatical austerity, and never with more ardour uses the ministry of fraud, than when arrayed in the garb of sanctity. The traffic of New England, of a minute and detailed kind, less resembling the pursuit of an enlightened merchant than a petty shopkeeper, while it narrowed liberality, sharpened artifice.

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artifice. Inheriting a tinge of democratical republicanism, the people submitted with reluctance to the constitutional authority of a government in which monarchy made a considerable part, and spurned at the idea of yielding to what they conceived to be usurpation. Avarice being a prominent feature in their characters, they were peculiarly jealous of an apprehended usurpation, which was calculated to affect their purposes. As their sentiments and principles prompted them to oppose such attempts, their intelligent and bold character enabled them effectually to resist them. In the middle colonies, in which the temperature of the climate and fertility of the soil easily afforded the necessaries and accommodations of life, though active and industrious, the inhabitants were not equally hardy and enterprising; they were less austere in their manners, admitted luxury and refinement to a much greater degree than the colonists of the north, and were attached to a monarchial form of government. The southern colonies were dissipated, relaxed, and indolent; and therefore, though little adapted to resistance themselves, were well-fitted to receive impressions from more vigorous characters. The New Englanders were extremely active in diffusing their own sentiments through the provinces attached to the mother-country; till, at length, the spirit of dissatisfaction became so prevalent, as to attract the notice and animadversions of the British government.'

We do not mean altogether to question the justness of this picture: but we must observe that the unfavourable features in the character of the New Englanders are drawn with more strength than they present in the delineations of Mr. Burke, who had taken vast pains to inform himself on the subject. Neither do we dispute the attachment of Dr. Bisset to liberty: but we cannot avoid remarking that a love of it is not very consistent with a disposition to resolve all struggles in its favour, to such springs as avarice, hypocrisy, and puritanism. The cause suffers in proportion as the motives of those who act in it are vilified; and an impulsion which the most illustrious characters of Britain sanctioned, and which communicated itself rapidly to all the colonies, without excepting the most temperate and loyal, would seem to claim an origin more respectable than that which is here assigned to it.

As the Parliament, which met on the 4th November 1774, was that which occasioned the mutilation of the empire, and the degradation of the kingdom, and which burthened its inhabitants to so enormous an extent, the reader may not be displeased to have presented to his view the sketches attempted by the present author, of the persons who principally figured in this senate:

'For examining such momentous questions, seldom has a national council contained a greater assemblage of ability, than the British parliament now exhibited. In the house of commons, among many men of considerable talents and extensive knowledge, there were ranged

ranged on the side of ministers, the financial information and accurate results of sir Grey Cooper; the perspicacious detail, solid judgment, and orderly arrangement, of sir Gilbert Elliot; and the intrepid confidence and manly boldness of Mr. Rigby. In rising progression, there followed the sound and vigorous understanding, the unremitting industry, the commercial, political and diplomatic knowledge, the lucid disposition, the correct and perspicuous expression of Jenkinson; and the acuteness, closeness, and neat precision of Germaine. Dundas *, from his first entrance into public life, exhibited those qualities by which he has been uniformly distinguished; an understanding quick, sagacious, and powerful; reasoning forcible, and direct, strictly adhering to the point at issue; an expeditious dispatch of difficult business; and, regarding the senate as a council for the direction of national affairs more than a theatre for the display of eloquence, he was in his language intelligible and strong, without ornament or elegance. A mind by nature penetrating, brilliant, and inventive, formed and refined by erudition and by literary † society, sharpened and invigorated by professional occupations, and enlarged by political studies and pursuits; an eloquence that he could admirably vary to the occasion, and exhibit either in argumentative force, logical subtlety and skill, or with all the ornaments of rhetoric and the graces of persuasion, rendered Wedderburne a valuable accession to any cause which he chose to support. For masculine energy of intellect, force devoid of ornament, and exhibiting itself in efforts direct, simple, and majestic, Thurlow stood eminent. Lord North was equally remarkable for pleasing and varied wit and humour, classical taste, erudition, and allusion, as for dexterity of argument and felicity of reply. On the other side were arrayed, the patriotism and solidity of Dempster and Saville; the industry and colonial information of Pownal; the colloquial pleasantry, vivacity, and classical erudition of Wilkes; the animated declamation of Barrè; the quick apprehension, commercial and political knowledge, of Johnstone; and the constitutional principles, legal precision, readiness, acuteness, and vigour, of Dunning. Above these, rose the extensive, accurate, and multifarious knowledge, the abundant and diversified imagery, the luminous illustration and rapid invention; the reasoning, dilated or compressed, digressive or direct, disjointed or continuous, which, if not always pointedly convincing, never failed to be generally instructive; the comprehensive views and philosophical eloquence, of a Burke. A senator was now rising to the first rank in the first assembly of the world, who must have held a very exalted situation in any convention of statesmen and orators recorded in history, this was Charles James Fox. In the twentieth year of his age he had become a member of parliament, and young as he was, distinguished himself among the many eminent members of the house, and was at

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'* Lord advocate of Scotland.'

'† He was the intimate friend of Smith, Robertson, and Fergusson, and their cotemporaries, in their early years; and cultivated an acquaintance with Burke, Johnson, and other eminent scholars in his more advanced life.'

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first one of the ablest supporters of administration. The facility with which he made himself master of a new question, and comprehended with such force of judgment the strength weakness, and tendency, of a proposition or measure; his powerful argumentation, his readiness of the most appropriate, significant, and energetic language, soon rendered him conspicuous; while his daily and obvious improvement shewed that his talents had not then nearly reached the pinnacle at which they were destined to arrive. Since he joined opposition, his talents and exertions appeared more potent and formidable than even had been expected *.

'In the house of peers, the chief supporters of administration were, lord Hillsborough, a nobleman of sound judgment and official experience; earl Gower, a peer of good character and extensive influence, who, in the minority of the duke, headed the Bedford party; and the earl of Sandwich, acute and intelligent as a senator, but a judicious speaker rather than a splendid orator. The only peer of transcendent genius who joined ministers in the coërcive system, was lord Mansfield; a personage very eminently distinguished for abilities and erudition, and for argumentative, refined, and persuasive eloquence; but the fame of this illustrious senator was principally founded upon his oratorial and judicial powers and efforts, and derived little accession from his counsels as a statesman. The most distinguished peers who were inimical to the coërcive system, were the Marquis of Rockingham, whom we have viewed as minister; the duke of Richmond, a nobleman of respectable abilities, active, indefatigable, and ardent; Lord Shelburne, whom we have seen as secretary of state, distinguished for extent of general knowledge, and peculiarly marked for his extensive views of the reciprocal relations, commercial and political, of European states; Lord Camden, the great bulwark of English law, profoundly versed in our constitution, with that mild, clear, and nervous eloquence, which is the firm, and efficacious instrument of wisdom; and lastly, in himself a host, the earl of Chatham.'

It will appear from this extract, that the author's chief aim has been to discover all that was favourable in the public characters of the day; a disposition which we have already noticed, and which, however amiable, deprives History of one of her most august functions.

The separate provinces of the Coryphæi of opposition in the course of this war are thus described by the author:

'The transcendent genius of Messrs. Burke and Fox, though exercised in every subject that came before parliament, had two different fields on which they respectively displayed their greatest excellence. The legislative plans proposed by opposition, projects of conciliation, and other schemes of deliberative policy, requiring the union of accurate and extensive detail, with confirmed habits of generalization, were most frequently the productions of Mr. Burke. Discussions of executorial plans, and concise inquiries concerning specific

* 'A part of this account is taken, with considerable variations, from the life of Burke, first edition, p. 210 to 218.'

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measures, requiring also energy of intellect, firmness and decision of temper, but without demanding such a compass of general knowledge, or at least equal habits of philosophic contemplation, came chiefly from Mr. Fox.'

In the subsequent extract, we have the plan of the war; which, as Dr. Bisset remarks, appears to have been ably conceived, and to have merited a better cause, and a better fate:

'The main object of military operations was New York; and for making this part of America the chief seat of war, there were various reasons. The province of New York, running north-west, joins with Canada, that runs south-west, and both together enclose New England, and divide it from the southern colonies. By possessing New York and the southern part of the province, while the Canadian army invaded it on the north, a communication, it was conceived, might be established between the secondary and primary army; both could cooperate vigorously, easily reduce New England, afterwards act in concert against the more southern colonies, and procure the assistance of the back-settlers, many of whom were well disposed to the mother-country. New York was a centrical position, from which operations might be directed either to the one side or the other, as occasion might serve, or circumstances require, so that this position enabled the British commander to prescribe the scene of action, and to quit it when he chose; and if the army were withdrawn from the field, the great north river, and the different channels between the islands and the main land, would enable him, by his ships and detachments, to harass the adjoining countries; while the provincials, however powerful, could make no attempt upon the islands that would not be attended with greater inconveniencies, and liable to imminent danger. Besides these advantages, Long Island was very fertile in wheat and all other corns*, abounded with herds and flocks, and was deemed almost equal alone to the maintenance of an army. In the province, especially in the upper part towards Albany, there were reported to be many loyalists, who would flock to the British standard as soon as they could manifest their sentiments safely. New York, from these circumstances, was an object of high importance, and its attainment was not reckoned difficult; much the better part of the province is enclosed in islands, which being long and narrow, were exposed on all sides to attacks from our fleets, and to the descents of our troops; and when conquered, the protection of the ships of war would be as effectual in their preservation, as their hostility had been in their reduction. These were the reasons on which the military plan was founded; and whatever the sentiments of the reader may be respecting the wisdom of the statesman who proposed, and the lawgivers who adopted the measures which produced enmities between America and the mother-country, he will probably without hesitation admit, that the plan of military operation was not discreditable to the talents of its author as a war minister. But the history now proceeds to narrate its execution.'

* Corns, plural, for *corn*. This and other expressions bespeak the northern origin of Dr. Bisset.

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The delicate situation, into which the declaration of the colonists threw their parliamentary friends, is properly noticed in the following passage:

'The declaration of American independence placed the supporters of the colonists in a situation never before known in the history of parliament; the Americans were no longer fellow-subjects complaining of grievances, but a separate state engaged in hostilities with this country. Parliamentary annals do not before this session afford an instance of a party in our senate avowedly defending the cause of a power with which our country was at war, with the approbation of both the senate and nation. Members may have censured either the impolicy or precipitancy of intended hostilities, but after they were actually commenced, have abstained from such opposition, as tending to inspirit the enemy, and to dishearten their countrymen. They have objected to specific plans for carrying on the war, and censured instances of rash or feeble execution; but their animadversions were confined to management without extending to origin: they shewed themselves aware that when a powerful state is once involved in a war, the only effectual means of honourable and secure extrication are vigorous efforts; but the opponents of ministers at this period took a different course, and however prudent and just their exertions might be while they tended to avert war, they became much more questionable in point of expediency, from the time that the colonies separated themselves from the mother-country.'

In speaking of Major Patrick Fergusson, who had invented a new species of rifle, Dr. B. records a very curious incident; which proves that in brave minds the sentiments of nature, even in the midst of human carnage, are sometimes too strong to yield to the calls of professional engagements. The anecdote also shews the great danger in which General Washington was once placed, and the coolness with which he conducted himself in his perilous situation. The Major related, in a letter to Dr. Fergusson, that he and some of his men were placed on a skirt of a wood in front of General Knyphausen's division:

"We had not lain long when a rebel officer, remarkable by a Hussar dress, passed towards our army, within a hundred yards of my right flank, not perceiving us. He was followed by another dressed in dark green and blue, mounted on a good bay horse, with a remarkable large high cocked hat. I ordered three good shots to steal near to them and fire at them; but the idea disgusted me; I recalled the order. The Hussar in returning made a circuit, but the other passed within a hundred yards of us; upon which I advanced from the wood towards him. Upon my calling, he stopped; but after looking at me, proceeded; I again drew his attention, and made sign to him to stop, levelling my piece at him; but he slowly continued his way. As I was within that distance at which, in the quickest firing, I could have lodged half a dozen balls in or about him before he was out of my

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my reach, I had only to determine; but it was not pleasant to fire at the back of an unoffending individual, who was acquitting himself very coolly of his duty, so I let him alone. The day after, I had been telling this story to some wounded officers who lay in the same room with me, when one of our surgeons who had been dressing the wounded rebel officers came in and told us, that they had been informing him, that General Washington was all the morning with the light troops, and only attended by a French officer in a hussar dress, he himself dressed and mounted in every point as above described. I am not sorry that I did not know at the time who it was."

We recommend this anecdote to the consideration of all patrons of this mode of prosecuting war.

The author describes the campaign of 1777 as having few parallels in military history, for uniting efficiency of force and multiplicity of operation with futility of result; and such, he says, must impartial history transmit to posterity the warfare of General Sir W. Howe in America.

In the ensuing passage, in which Dr. Bisset speaks of the ministry with not more than due severity, he seems to have forgotten the favourable pictures which he had drawn of each minister separately. The observations which it contains display, in a narrow compass, the whole mass of their errors:

'In reviewing the policy of the successive counsellors concerned in our disputes with America, and considering the value of the objects, and the efficacy of the means, an attempt to discover grand, comprehensive, and beneficially practicable principles and schemes would be vain. Ministers had reasoned and acted as political empirics, and had even evinced themselves deficient in the limited experience to which an empiric trusts. Their proceedings not only proved them devoid of political wisdom, but of common information, on very obvious cases, which it behoved them to have thoroughly investigated. It is easy to see that combined wisdom and magnanimity might have avoided the American war; by abstaining from imposts less productive than advantageous, which were enjoyed before their enactment; by concession, when more profitable than coercion; by voluntary grants, more glorious than attempts to exact; or if conciliatory offers of renewed intercourse availed nothing, by rather totally abandoning the object, than persisting in it through means to which the value of the end was so little proportionate.'

When Dr. B. is called to treat of the peace of 1783, he seems hardly either to censure or to vindicate the terms of it. We are aware that this is a measure to which the range of our criticism does not properly extend; and we own ourselves not to be politicians enough to form a confident judgment respecting it. We can only say that we have never seen it proved to our satisfaction, that, in the circumstances to which the country had been then reduced, the terms were not fully as

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good as could have been expected: but we have no hesitation in declaring that it puzzles our ordinary understandings, when we find statesmen of the first order, who condemned the peace of Paris, express themselves satisfied with the treaty of Amiens.

Great impartiality prevails in the author's account of the period of peace, which intervened between the American and the French revolutionary war; and the merits of the then contending parties are weighed in an even balance. In this part of the work, the attention is chiefly attracted by an elaborate panegyric on Lord Mansfield, composed of shewy generalities, and in which the outlines and features that marked the character of this illustrious magistrate are with difficulty traced. The mind of this very able judge, it is evident, was not indued with any aptitude for political discussions. He was great only in the courts; and even there he betrayed a leaning to power, and a subjection to prejudice, which would have disgraced an ordinary man, and which his fine talents and eminent attainments alone prevented from being more noticed.

The most valuable of the present volumes are those which bring down the history to the close of the American war; those which treat of our last contest, though they exhibit many portions of praise-worthy narrative, are on the whole by no means so well digested, and offer fewer results of adequate investigation or able analysis. In so extensive a performance, we can only remark on prominent points; and to enter into general detail, or exercise minute criticism, would be impossible. We shall therefore conclude this article with the insertion of two or three extracts, which contain the sentiments of the author on the conduct of our two great political characters, in junctures which have been regarded as peculiarly affecting their fame and reputation. We refer to his observations on the conduct of Mr. Fox, with regard to his India bill, and the sentiments which he delivered when the constitution of Canada was discussed; and on the cast of Mr. Pitt's mind, as it is to be collected from the law which he introduced to regulate political meetings. The language of the writer is not that of a partisan, nor of a servile advocate: but it appears to proceed, and we think that it in a great degree *does* proceed, from the exercise of judgment, discrimination, and impartiality. Giving an account of the proceedings on the India bill, Dr. B. thus proceeds:

'Mr Fox's opponents illustrated their conceptions of his scheme, by comparing him to Oliver Cromwel, Julius Cæsar, Catiline, and other celebrated projectors of usurpation. But an attentive consideration of his character, dispositions, and habits, and, above all, his uniform

uniform conduct, by no means justifies the charge of *solitary* ambition. Social in private life, Mr. Fox has always courted association in politics; ambitious of sway, he has sought not only to acquire it by, but to enjoy it with, a party. Besides, had he been ever so desirous of the solitary dominion of protector or dictator, he must have known that in Britain he never could have attained so uncontrolled a power. His sagacity would not have suffered his designs so very far to outgo every probability of success. Confining the proposed schemes of this great man somewhat near the bounds of probable execution, the historian may fairly venture to affirm, that he intended, by his India bill, to secure the continuance of power to himself, his whig confederacy, and their new allies; and that the whole series of his conduct was a practical adoption of the doctrines of his friend Mr. Burke, in his "Thoughts on the Discontents," exhibiting all the beauties of poetry and depth of philosophy, to minister to party politics, and applying the energies of his genius, the stores of his wisdom, and the fascination of his fancy, to shew that Britain, disregarding the choice of the king, or the talents of the subject, ought to be governed by a whig association. On the whole, it is evident, that one of the chief objects of the coalition was, to establish the united parties in the management of government. It is no less manifest, that the East India bill both tended, and was designed to secure to the confederacy the continuance of power. So far impartial history must concur with the opponents of the illustrious Fox. But the reasonableness of the censure, and even obloquy which he thereby incurred, is much more questionable. That Mr. Fox loved power is very obvious, and abstractly neither deserving of praise nor censure. There is little doubt that he was not the minister of the king's predilection and personal choice. The appointment of his executive servants is certainly by the constitution vested in his majesty; but various cases have occurred in the history of England, in which it was not only requisite, but necessary, for the king, in the exercise of his prerogative, to sacrifice private prepossessions to general good: such an event has happened, and always may happen under a free constitution, of which the object is the welfare of the community. The court doctrine at this time, that Mr. Fox and his adherents merited the severest reprobation, *because* they wished to administer the government contrary to the inclination of the king, is by no means obviously true. The unbiassed historian must consider the question on the broad grounds of expediency. Had or had not Charles James Fox, in his parliamentary and executorial conduct, shewn such intellectual talents, such force, energy, and decision of mind, as would have rendered him a momentous accession to the counsels of the nation, when the state of affairs required the exertion of the greatest abilities which it contained? Those who thought that he had manifested such talents and qualities, were, by patriotic duty, bound to support the continuance, or attempt the restoration of his power. Mr. Fox, though not thirty-five years of age, was an old senator: for ten years his wisdom, viewing situation and conduct, had predicted events and results with an accuracy almost prophetic. His lessons as a statesman, he had received from moral and political

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science, thorough conversancy with the British constitution, government, and interests, impressed more forcibly on his mind by practical contemplation of the errors of systems, the insufficiency of plans, and the imbecility of execution, followed to their fatal effects. *For only eleven months and a quarter*, in two cabinets, had he been minister. With the Marquis of Rockingham, he, in four months, had pacified and enfranchised the discontented and oppressed Ireland; he had prepared for terminating a ruinous war; and had promoted retrenchment of the expenditure, which was so burdensome to the nation. In the coalition ministry, he had persevered in promoting œconomical regulations, which were so much wanted; and had begun succesfully to move stagnant commerce. His India bill, even if admitted to be wrong in its object and principle, yet was certainly grand, comprehensive, and efficient. If there was error, it arose, not from the defect of weakness, but the excess of strength. It displayed a range of survey, a fertility and force of invention, a boldness and decision of plan, an openness and directness of execution, that stamped its author as a man of sublime genius, who fearlessly unfolded and published his conceptions. The impartial narrator, using the best of his judgment, must disapprove of the infringement of charters *, at least till proof was established that their objects had been violated, or deem the new power created greater than was either necessary for its purpose, or consistent with the balance of the constitution; but must acknowledge, that its territorial operation would have been thoroughly and immediately efficacious. The perspicuity of the whole, and every clause, manifested the extent and bounds of the delegated power, defined the mode of its exercise, and the open responsibility under which the trust was to be discharged; and in marking the line of duty, shewed the unavoidable consequences of transgression; by precluding the probability of unpunished guilt, it tended to prevent the recurrence of oppression; ascertaining the tenure, and securing the rights of property, it would stimulate industry, and render British India infinitely more productive to the proprietors and nation, besides diffusing comfort and happiness to the natives, so long the objects of an iniquity which was disgraceful to the British name. These were the benefits which must have obviously resulted from the plan of Mr. Fox. The confiscation of charters could only be defended on the ground of necessity, and Mr. Fox had not evinced that necessity, and was therefore precipitate and blameable in proposing to proceed upon an assumption, in a case of so high an importance both as to policy and justice. But his propositions on this part of the subject did not necessarily imply unfair intentions. The influence which must have accrued to the confederacy might have been formidable to the consti-

* 'I have been informed by a member of the party that some very eminent senators belonging to it, especially a gentleman who has since risen to be one of its heads, privately advised Mr. Fox to leave the commercial management to the company. If that advice had been followed, the chief ground of popular reproach would have been prevented, and Mr. Fox might have continued to be minister.'

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tution, but if it proved so, its dangers must have arisen from the legislators, the guardians of our polity, as to these the proposed commissioners were to be amenable. The new influence might increase ministerial majorities in parliament, but great means of such an augmentation must have arisen from any plan for taking the territorial possessions under the direction of the British government. His East India scheme, both in itself and in combination with his other acts, and the series of his conduct, displayed those talents and qualities, which, when joined, place the possessor in the highest rank of statesmen, and shew him fully competent to render to his country the most momentous services. The plan itself is of a mixed character, and liable to many strong objections; yet the impartial examiner will not easily discover, in the whole of this scheme, reasons to convince him, that *because Mr. Fox proposed this plan for governing India, it was beneficial to the country to be deprived of the executorial efforts of his transcendent abilities.* The historian, unconnected with party, and considering merely the will and power of individuals or bodies to promote the public good, must lament what truth compels him to record, that a personage equalled by so few in extent of capacity and force of character, in fitness for benefiting the nation, during a political life of thirty-five years, should have been enjoyed as a minister by his country only *once for three months and a half, and again for seven months and three quarters.* The situation of the empire required the united efforts of the greatest political abilities, but Britain was not destined to possess the executorial exertions of both her most consummate statesmen.'

On the discussion which took place respecting the constitution of Canada, Dr. B. observes that the impartial examiner cannot find a single sentence or even phrase of Mr. Fox, which was not highly favourable to the British constitution.

Referring to the acts restrictive of liberty, introduced by Mr. Pitt and Lord Grenville in 1795, the author says:

'These acts tended greatly to shake the popularity of Mr. Pitt through the kingdom. However efficient they might be for remedying the specific evils that prevailed, yet even many friends of government thought they did much more than the necessity of the case justified. Persons unconnected with party admitted the expediency of extending the treason-laws to conspiracies for levying war against the sovereign and constitution; but disapproved of the vague and general description of this new species of treason, including in its overt acts whatever had a *tendency* to rebellion against the king, government, or legislature. This clause they considered as a deviation from the spirit of English laws: it opened, they said, a door for the arbitrary and oppressive constructions which characterize absolute and tyrannical systems; and was therefore contrary to the principles and objects of the British constitution. The restrictions upon the press, imposed by the same act, by many well affected to government were deemed to admit also too much latitude of construction; to subject literary effort to the control of ministers,

and to enchain the freedom of the press. It was allowed by every candid and impartial man, that the harangues and lectures of demagogues, in periodical and occasional conventicles, were extremely dangerous, and required to be prevented; but, on the other hand, it was asserted, that the laws in existence were sufficient for punishing whatever sedition could be proved to have been uttered; that the whole community ought not to be debarred from assembling, because incendiaries had, in certain assemblies, violated the laws. The right of discussing public measures belongs to every free-born Briton; its exercise promotes his sense of personal importance; the best nourisher of liberty and independence. Other Britons were not to be debarred from enjoying such privileges, because a foolish, virulent, or malignant lecturer, abused his exercise of the same right. The restriction tended to enervate the spirit of freedom, and thus to effect a great, general, and permanent evil, in order to remedy a partial and temporary evil. The most solid and effectual answer to these very forcible objections was, that the obnoxious laws were only intended to be temporary.

'The abilities of Mr. Pitt often manifested themselves in turning public opinion into the current which best suited his political views; but one engine he appears not to have estimated with his usual perspicacity: Mr. Pitt laid too little stress upon literary efficacy: while the press is free, literary power will produce great effects on public opinion. The minister was not deemed favourable to writers, as a class: perceiving that they had frequently done much mischief in France, he appeared to have drawn an inference too hasty, that they ought to be discouraged in England. The laws in question, and other acts, tended to restrain the market for literary commodities, consequently to do an aggregate hurt to the profession. This effect literary men felt, and many of them strongly and efficiently expressed their feelings: habits of combination, analysis, comparison, and deduction of general principles, enabled them to view and estimate the character of the legislative measures of Mr. Pitt. In these they professed to discover, that the greater part of our new laws had a reference, either to public revenue, or to the security of the monarchical part of the constitution; and that few, of any extensive operation, are of the class that may be denominated popular.'

However defective in polish this production may be, no one who peruses it will deny that the author seems to have possessed the ability, the information, and the industry, which would have enabled him to discharge successfully the task which he imposed on himself. From the preceding account, our readers will judge to what degree the Doctor has employed these means, and in what respects the work may be considered as liable to objections.

Jo.

ART.

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ART. IV. *General View of the Agriculture of Hertfordshire.* Drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture and Internal Improvement. By the Secretary of the Board. 8vo. pp. 236. 6s. sewed. Nicol. 1804.

COMPARATIVE agriculture must serve to stimulate intelligent cultivators to improvement, even if it produces no other benefit. Men of spirit and science cannot endure the thought of being outstripped in the race of public utility, and of possessing the means of enriching themselves without deriving the utmost advantage from such capabilities. The County Surveys, which we have already perused, place our landed gentlemen and farmers in a most respectable point of view: since hence we perceive that Agriculture, which has been not improperly termed "the noblest study of man," is nobly pursued; and that, in all parts of Great Britain, men of knowlege and property are directing their attention to every branch of this subject. From this cause, the General View of Counties, published by the Board of Agriculture, though still deficient in many respects, are more valuable than they otherwise would have been. It was not the want of a Colbert or a Louvois, which occasioned the failure of Louis XIV., when, in 1698, he attempted to obtain a particular description of each province in his kingdom, but the general ignorance which then prevailed among the occupiers of the soil in France. Very different is the case with us: for how many in every part of the island are both able and willing to aid the labours of the professed reporter, and to detail their experiments and the result of their practice for the general good!

In addition to the notices obtained from many respectable agriculturists, Mr. Young is able to subjoin his own experience, having for several years occupied a considerable farm in the county which he now undertakes to describe: a circumstance which, added to his known sagacity of research, cannot fail of stamping a value on the present memoir. To some articles of the printed plan, however, no attention has been given; and in particular we have no mention of the amount of the population. Perhaps the Secretary was unable to satisfy himself on this head: but even the impossibility of obtaining an accurate account ought to have been stated.

It appears from this report that Hertfordshire (or Hartfordshire) is situated between the parallels of 51° 37′ and 52° 5′ north latitude, measures 28 miles from east to west, 36 from north to south, and 130 in circumference, and contains, in the whole, 302,080 acres.

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'Of these { 46,720 / 90,240 / 5,120 / 142,720 / 17,280 } acres are { chalk. / clay. / rich loam. / loam. / poor gravel.

302,080'

Chalk is to be found at various depths throughout the county, and a map is given of the surface-soil: but the reader is cautioned against supposing that this map presents an accurate discrimination. 'The truth (says the Reporter) is that the soils of this county mix and run into each other in a remarkable manner; so that, except in the case of chalk, and that singularly unfertile land, which I term *gravel*, they are traced and named with a good deal of uncertainty; not for want, I trust, of attention in making the observations, but from the varying qualities of the respective soils.' Having coloured different districts of the map, to express loam, clay, chalk, and gravel, justice required this explanation: but why, under the circumstances of the case, was colouring employed, to render such explanation necessary?

In the section on *Water*, Mr. Young takes notice of the canals which intersect Hertfordshire, in connection with its Agriculture, and suggests hints for removing the difficulties which at present obstruct the conveyance of manure from the metropolis:

'From the information which I could gain on this subject, several arrangements appear to be wanted, before this great work can be turned to all the advantage which the agriculture of Hertfordshire should derive from it. It appears that the benefit of bringing bulky manures, is extremely questionable at present; and the fact is, that vast quantities of hay and straw go to London, from the very banks of the canal, by land-carriage, the carts bringing dung back, which does not answer when brought by the navigation. There is an apparent absurdity in this, which should be removed. It seems to arise from the want of magazines and wharfs at Paddington, where a hay and straw market should be immediately established, so that both articles might be sold directly from the barges, which should be immediately loaded with manures from the wharfs. Proper steps have not been taken hitherto to effect these objects; and till such are determined and well executed, the obvious benefits of the work will be too speculative to effect those great improvements which ought to result from it. A beast and sheep market there should also be established, which would prove very beneficial to all the central grazing counties. Manures come at too heavy an expence, from the double cartage at London, which might very easily be prevented. When these necessary arrangements shall have been effected, we shall see land carriage parallel to the line of the canal laid aside; and a consi-

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derable saving will be made by the non-employment of many horses; the roads will be consequently preserved; and the use of manures will be greatly extended among the farmers who live within reach of the canal.'

The remark under the heads of Estate and the size of Farms merits notice:

'Property in Hertfordshire is much divided: the vicinity of the capital; the goodness of the air and roads, and the beauty of the country, have much contributed to this circumstance, by making this county a favourite residence, and by attracting great numbers of wealthy persons to purchase land for building villas: this has multiplied estates in a manner unknown in the more distant counties. About 7000l. a-year is the largest estate in the county: there are six or seven from 3 to 4000l.; more of about 2000l.; and below that sum, of every value.

'In the more eastern counties, the farmers have been very considerable purchasers of land; a circumstance that has not happened, except in very few instances, in Hertfordshire. The farms are not large, and the expences of agriculture are higher than common; which may account for the want of this sign of farming wealth.'—

'The inquiry into the benefits of large and small farms, as a general question, belongs not to a County Report; but the vicinity to London, which influences so materially the cultivation of Hertfordshire, demands a local observation. It is the general opinion of the district, that the soil cannot be kept in that degree of fertility necessary to support the rental and other expences of it, without bringing large quantities of manure from the capital; a business indifferently executed on very small farms. All the exertions of this kind, which claimed any notice, are upon large ones; so much so, that I have little doubt but that the greatest breadth of land thus dressed, in proportion to the size of the farms, has been upon the two greatest in the county, though one of them, Mr. Doo's of Bygrave, is near forty miles from London; and the fact may fairly be used in argument against an indiscriminate condemnation of large farms. Another circumstance which should be noticed here is, the general predilection for the application of the sheep-fold, which is more universal in this county than in any other with which I am acquainted. What a system of waste, both of time and labour, must it be, to set a fold for 20 or 30 sheep! In proportion, therefore, as folding is necessary, a large farm is necessary; for it cannot be practised advantageously on any other.'

The plashing of fences, as practised in Hertfordshire, is recommended, and, where beauty is required, the clipping of them: but Mr. Y. observes that hedges thus treated 'cease to be the collieries of a county:' a most material objection where fuel is scarce. By the sides of public roads, it is advisable to trim up the hedges, and to keep them low: but, independently of the imprudence of destroying these vegetable collieries, the general effect on the landscape would be far from beautiful.

On

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On the process in managing arable land, the great object of Hertfordshire husbandry, Mr. Young is very minute; and his remarks are prefaced by a piece of historical information which perhaps is new to most of our readers, viz. 'that turnips and clover are supposed to have been introduced into this county in the time of Oliver Cromwel, who gave 100l. a-year on that account to a farmer of the name of Howe; and that it appears also, by old leases, that the course of crops, and the management in general, have experienced very little change in the last hundred years.'

Preparation of wheat introduces the subjects of Steeps and Smut, the former being generally supposed to be a preventative of the latter: but it still may fairly be a matter of doubt whether the preparation of the seed has any connection with the disease termed Smut, by which the substance of the grain is converted into a kind of small puff-ball or fungus. A proper caution is given against the use of chamber-ley; which, if added after brining, or if the corn be steeped in it when it is stale, kills the wheat:

'Mr. Leach has bought smutty wheat, to sow for curiosity, and even the worst which he could find: he steeped it six hours in a very strong brine, made to swim a large egg: he dried it with hot lime, and sowed it directly, and had no smut. He has tried this several times, always with success. He steeps clean wheat but three hours.

'Mr. Sedgwick steeps his seed in brine, as above, six hours; then dries it with lime, and sows it directly; and he never has any smut: he omitted it three or four years, and suffered severely by such omission.'

The Reporter observes under the title *Smut*:

'There seems to be no security against this distemper in any part of the county; yet under the article *Steeps*, it is seen that they generally pickle the seed. This disorder must, therefore, arise from the too general practice of only wetting the seed with the brine, or of steeping it too short a time; and very possibly from swimming too much together, by which the skimming of it is very much impeded.'

An annotator, who signs H, assures us that these opinions are just; yet we venture to question them. We have known smutty wheat sown without preparation, and no smut has appeared at the harvest; and we have also sown the best seed which could be procured, and brined and limed it with care, but smut has still manifested itself in the crop. If the cause of this disease were in the grain before it was deposited in the ground, could a saline steep reach it? That which affects the germ, as chamber-ley, may destroy vegetation; and that which affects only that part which perishes in the ground can have little connection

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connection with the quality of the future produce. We request farmers to consider whether smut be not occasioned by a baneful influence on the plant in its growing state, and particularly when it is in bloom. The internal part of each grain is then in a soft pulpy state, which, under favouring circumstances, becomes a hard farinaceous substance: but, by being checked in its natural progress, or by having its tender structure destroyed, it is converted into a black powder. If such be the theory of smut, brining can be of little use: yet farmers are everywhere partial to the practice.

Among the Hertfordshire cultivators, the name of the *Marchioness* of Salisbury frequently occurs; and in one place, *her Ladyship* is designated by the epithet of 'this excellent farmer.' The sections on *Parsnips* and *Beets* detail only her practice:

'SECT. XV.—PARSNIPS.

'This plant makes a great figure in the experiment ground of the Marchioness of SALISBURY: the crop is good, and quite clean. Fatting oxen consume them most advantageously: their benefit thus applied, is so great as nearly to equal, in the opinion of Mr. STEPHENSON, oil-cake: they are consequently excellent for all stock, but superior in fatting bullocks.

'SECT. XVI.—BEETS.

'The common red beet, and the root of scarcity, are cultivated successfully in the experiment ground of the Marchioness of SALISBURY; the former answer greatly in fattening cattle, almost as well as parsnips, and better than carrots.'

The evidence here collected by Mr. Young, respecting the Drill-Husbandry, is not in its favour. After having stated several experiments, he says:

'A conclusion is fairly to be drawn, that a method of putting in crops which has failed with several intelligent cultivators, and only partially succeeded with some others, cannot be generally necessary as a means of profit. The observations relative to barley and oats are against the practice. I allude here to nothing done or talked of in other counties, as my business is with Hertfordshire; and certainly in this county, the experiments made, by no means ascertain that any advantage whatever may really exist; nor will the point be cleared up in this county, till some capital farmer, by means of drilling, shall exceed the crops and profit which a YOUNG of Hurral, a WHITTINGTON of Broad-water, and a Doo of Bygrave gain by the common method.'

Of Irrigation, we are informed, great opportunities occur in this county, but this improvement is obstructed by the frequency of mills. On this fact a judicious comment is made by the reporter, which deserves the attention of juries:

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'The contests between millers and occupiers of land, are perpetual and universal all over the kingdom. It would be well worthy the attention of the Board, to obtain an equitable decision of the points contested, or likely to be contested: at present, the *fashion* of law is favourable to millers, and unfavourable to flooding, although the latter is considerably more beneficial to society; for almost any water mill is capable of flowing, by means of a level taken from its head, more land than would pay the rent of the mill; and without losing many days' grinding in the year. Mr. BAKEWELL, of Dishley, took a lease of Dishley-mill, which enabled him to improve his land more in its annual value than twice the rent of the mill; but such improvement by no means rendered the mill useless. J. HUTCHINSON made a similar offer to Lord SALISBURY, for an old paper-mill at Hatfield, but it was refused; he then availed himself of an old prescriptive right of taking water without consent, but it was scarcely sufficient; notwithstanding which, he effected the improvement before-mentioned. Mr. MAWE afterwards took the Salisbury-Arms inn, and with it the demesne lands which J. HUTCHINSON sold to Lord SALISBURY at Woodhall: he neglected the flowing the meadows, and they became very bad: he has since left the place.'

Minutes are collected to ascertain the important question respecting the most profitable breeds of sheep, to which this general result is subjoined:

'The most interesting feature of these minutes, is the comparison of the Wiltshire and South Down breeds. Amongst very practical and reasonable men, the notion of the former doing best on turnips, and the latter on grass, has gained such ground, that I can scarcely conceive it to be a mere prejudice: and I ought to remark, that I have in other counties, and on various occasions, met with so many instances of Wiltshire wethers paying greatly for turnips, that I am inclined to think there is much truth in the Hertfordshire notion. Let me combine it with another well known fact, which is, that the Norfolk breed also pay remarkably well while fatting on turnips, I take these two breeds to be, generally speaking, the worst in the kingdom: it is, therefore, somewhat remarkable, that they should agree in this point of merit. It is sufficiently evident, that accurate experiments (by no means easy to make) are much wanted, clearly to ascertain such facts; which certainly ought to be ascertained more satisfactorily than any general ideas or remarks, or general experience can effect.'

The comparative merit of horses and oxen employed in agriculture makes a part of this as of other similar County Surveys. It is remarked, against the use of bullocks 'that they are very improperly said, in the First Report, to be fittest for strong heavy lands; for they poach and spoil the land, and tire themselves much worse than horses: it can only answer to keep them where there is plenty of pasture land of moderate

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rate value, and where wages of men are low; because, by reason of their slowness, a great deal of the time of those employed about them is lost.'

An able advocate for oxen is found in Mr. Young's correspondent, the Hon. George Villiers; part of whose letter we shall extract:

'I have often heard that bullocks will plough an acre of strong land in as short a time as horses: I have not found this to be the case; but though they may remain two hours longer in the field, they do not require stable attendance after their work. They cannot bear heat in the summer months equal to horses, and therefore (with me) they enter upon their work at two or three o'clock in the morning, by which means they nearly complete their business in the cool part of the day. However, the point on which I lay my greatest stress, on the advantage of bullocks over horses, is on the few (comparative) diseases to which the former are subject, and which instantly reduce the value of the latter perhaps from forty to four guineas. Spavins, grease, cankers, broken wind, blindness, farcy, mange, are all disorders very common among farm horses, not to mention more frequent injuries than to bullocks, from colds, kicks, and bad shoeing: on the other hand, except where a bullock appears to have too relaxed and weak a habit, I know of no disorder which reduces his real value; and it rests with his owner what improvement he wishes him to make for the butcher whilst in the yoke.'

The chapter on Political Economy is short, and contains little worth notice; except the high earnings of the straw-plaiters, and a letter respecting the Poor from Mr. Villiers to the Secretary.

Only two articles appear under the head *Miscellaneous*; viz. the price of land in Hertfordshire, and an account of Lady Salisbury's experimental farm.

From the specimens which we have given of the contents of this volume, a tolerable idea may be formed respecting its execution; which will not be found to lessen Mr. Young's character either as an agriculturist or a writer. It is embellished, in addition to the map of the county already mentioned, with plates representing the Hertfordshire mode of making hedges, and a moveable sheep-house invented by Mr. Villiers.

Mo-y.

Art. V. *The British Museum;* or elegant Repository of Natural History. By William Holloway, and John Branch, A. M. Four Vols. 12mo. 1l. 8s. Boards. Badcock. 1803 and 1804.

As an abridged and popular view of animated nature, this compilation has some claim to our favourable notice. The quadrupeds, in particular, are delineated with a considerable degree

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degree of interest: but the fishes and insects, though they form numerous and important classes, are dispatched with inconsiderate brevity. An index at the end of Vol. IV. is intended to supply the want of scientific arrangement. The publishers have not been sparing of their coloured plates: but among them we remark several that are rude or grotesque.

The style of the compilers, on the whole, is clear and appropriate, though it is too often marred by a contempt of the established concord of noun and verb. Thus we have 'the teeth of the elephant *has* caused,'—'the shortness of his legs *prevent*,'—'a bag with which it is furnished *approximate*,'—'the conformation of the minuter parts *were*,'—'their stock of provisions rarely *fail*,'—'their habit of laying traps for other animals *render*,'—'the blood of seventy thousand people *were*,'—'the whole extent of their cells sometimes *exceed*,'—'the holy scriptures *gives* us,' &c.—*Torpitude* and *torpidity* are very unnecessary substitutes for *torpor*; and we are little enamoured of such expressions as, 'had not have been taken,'—and 'escape all possibility of escape.' The misprintings are also numerous.

The writers have manifested their good sense in the rejection or confutation of several fabulous circumstances which have been reported of different animals; and they seldom hazard a remark or conjecture without foundation. Yet we cannot approve of their cool allusion to the 'crude and useless deformities of nature.' In nature there are no real deformities, nor any thing which we are intitled to denominate *crude* or *useless*. The apparent defect or uselessness of certain natural objects results from our own prejudices, and from our inability to trace the connections and dependencies of a complex and extensive system.

As a specimen of the work, we extract at random the article *Serval*:

'This fierce and rapacious animal, is a native of India and Tibet; in the Linnæan system it is denominated *felis serval*; Buffon calls it, the serval, or mountain cat; but Pennant, who in his Quadrupeds, likewise, calls it the serval, makes a distinction between this and the former animal. The natives of Malabar call it the marapute, or maraputa, and by some travellers, it has been described under the name of the tiger cat.

'In a work by the French academicians, entitled "Memoires pour servir à l'Histoire des Animaux," it seems first to have been noticed by the name of the *chat pard*; and was therein described as measuring two feet and a half, from the nose to the insertion of the tail; its shape and make was very thick and strong; its upper parts were of a fox-coloured red, with the throat, breast, belly, and inside of the legs, a dun white, the body was spotted with black, those spots on the sides,

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sides, belly, and legs, being rounder and more numerous than those on other parts.

' Buffon gives us the following description of this animal, from a passage in an Italian work, translated and sent to him by the Marquis de Montmirail.

" The marapute," which the Portuguese in India, call serval, is a ferocious animal, larger than a wild cat, and somewhat less than the civet, from which he differs, by having a larger and rounder head, and a kind of depression on the middle of the front.

" He resembles the panther in the colour of his hair, which is yellow on the head, back, and flanks, and white on the breast and belly, and likewise in the spots, which are distinct, equally distributed, and a little smaller than those of the panther. His eyes are extremely brilliant, his whiskers long and stiff, and his tail rather short: his toes were armed with long and hooked claws.

" He is found on the Indian mountains, where he is very seldom seen on the ground, but remains always on the trees, lurking among the branches, where he forms a nest, in which he lies in wait for birds, and other small animals, which constitute his chief nourishment. He leaps from tree to tree, as nimbly as the squirrel or the monkey, and with such address and agility, that he runs through a considerable space in an instant, appearing and disappearing alternately.

" In this state, he is extremely fierce, and yet he flies the aspect of man, unless when provoked, and particularly when his dwelling place is injured or incommoded: he then becomes exceedingly furious, darting on the offender, like the panther, seizing him by the neck or throat, and tearing him both with his teeth and talons, in a terrible manner.

" Neither captivity, nor good nor bad treatment," continues the above author, " can soften the natural ferocity of this animal."

' To the above, we might add the American serval, which the same writer, in his supplement, denominates the *chat sauvage de la Caroline.*

' This animal is a native of North America; and Pennant observes, that it has upright pointed ears, marked with two brown transverse bars. " The upper part of the body," continues he, " is of a reddish ground, and it is marked on the back with long narrow stripes; the chin is of a pure white, and the tail is annulated with black. It is about two feet and a half in length, mild and gentle in its manner, and is frequently observed to grow very fat."

' The French naturalist likewise gives us the figure of another animal of this tribe, under the appellation of *chat sauvage de la Nouvelle Espagne,* whose body is nearly four feet in length, when full grown; its general colour is of a blueish grey, speckled with a dark brown; it has small and clear eyes, coarse and stiff hair, the tail of one colour, and rather longer than that of the former.

' Buffon is of opinion that this quadruped is only a variety in the tribe, but Pennant considers it as a distinct species.

' Almost all animals of the cat kind, inhabit the most inaccessible mountains, and vast forests, where they seek safety by flight, or by climbing trees, for which nature seems to have peculiarly adapted them, by the lightness of their bodies, and the formation of their

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claws; and these, as they have the advantage of eluding the pursuit of man, so they are noxious in proportion to their power of doing mischief.'

Two other short quotations may serve as samples of the anecdotes and observations with which the volumes are occasionally enlivened:

'Father Carli observes, in his history of Angola, whither he was sent for the purpose of converting the natives to Christianity, while his health was totally impaired by the raging heats of the climate, his patience exhausted by the obstinacy of the stupid inhabitants, and his provisions daily plundered without redress, amidst all his exigencies, he experienced more faithful services from the monkies of the country, than from the human inhabitants. They amused him with their vagaries, consoled him by their attachment, and obeyed his commands with readiness and fidelity. He had taught them to attend him on his walks, to guard him, when asleep, against rats and thieves, to comb his head, to fetch his wood and water, and to perform a thousand little domestic services, with more faithfulness and tractability than the natives themselves.'—

'It is worthy of remark, that the salmon can again find the spot where it has once spawned, in the same manner as the swallow knows the house where she has built her nest. This circumstance is proved by an experiment made by De Lalande, who purchased twelve salmon of the fishermen of Chateaulin, (a small town of Lower Brittany, where sometimes four thousand are caught in a season) fastened a copper ring round the tail of each, and set them at liberty again. The fishermen afterwards informed him that the first year they took five of the fish thus marked, three the second year, and the same number the third. The princes of the East, who are generally fond of fishing, frequently fasten rings of gold or silver round salmon, and again throw them into the water. It was by means of these fish, we are told, that the communication of the Caspian Sea with the Northern Ocean, and Persian Gulf, was discovered.'

We are unwilling to dismiss this publication, without recommending it as a proper and amusing companion to the young of both sexes.

Muir.

ART. VI. *Horæ Biblicæ;* Part the Second: being a connected Series of miscellaneous Notes on the Koran, the Zend-Avesta, the Vedas, the Kings, and the Eddas. Crown 8vo. pp. 148. Not sold.

IT is known to many of our readers that Mr. Butler, of Lincoln's Inn, the author of these *Biblical Hours*, is a gentleman occupied in the business of the law, who pursues theological studies for his amusement. He has displayed in this and in the former part much reading, and has endeavoured to compress

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press the result of his inquiries into a narrow space. Having, in the first part, (see M. R. Vol. xxvii. N. S. p. 210.) exhibited many historical notices relative to the scriptures of the Old and New Testament, and examined various circumstances connected with the authenticity and purity of the sacred text, he now proceeds to give a concise view of the history of the several books which are accounted sacred in those parts of the world that are not converted to the Christian faith; particularly of the *Koran*, a book written some centuries subsequently to the Gospels, and the author of which has obtained singular success in making disciples. This subject merits inquiry; and the remarks which this unostentatious volume contains will serve to throw light on it. Mr. Butler considers the antient history of the countries in which the religion and empire of Mohammed took their rise, and the controversial dissentions of the Christian church at that period; both of which concurred in promoting the projects of the author of the Koran:

'If the period of the christian æra were to be mentioned, when there was least of order, least of power, least of science, and least of intercourse in Europe, it would be that century which immediately preceded, and that which immediately followed the commencement of the Hegira.

'The eastern empire still contained Greece, Thrace, Asia Minor, Mesopotamia, Syria, Palestine, Egypt, Africa, and a part of Italy: but it had been exhausted by a succession of foreign wars and civil dissentions; by repeated ravages of Barbarians, by oppression in the capital, extortion in the provinces, weak councils, lawless armies, and a disorderly court.

'To complete the calamity, *both the church and state, were, at the time we speak of, equally weakened by religious controversy and persecution.*—The last of these circumstances was, in a particular manner, the cause of the rapid success of Mahometanism.

'Very soon after the introduction of Christianity, a fondness for the philosophy of Plato and Pythagoras, led many to investigate the mysteries of the Trinity, and of the divinity and humanity of Jesus Christ, with too much curiosity. Praxeas maintained, that there was but one person in the Trinity, and that the Father was the same as the Jesus who was crucified. Year of Christ. 193

'The same heresy, with some modification, was adopted by Noëtus. - - - - 239

'With a similar notion of preserving the unity of the divine substance, without giving up the Trinity, Sabellius reduced the three persons of the Trinity to one and the same being, manifesting himself by two distinct operations, or energies moving from himself, called the Son and the Holy Ghost. - 257

'Arius, in avoiding the error of Sabellius, asserted Jesus Christ to be a creature drawn out of nothing, by the Father,

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and subsisting by his will, but begotten before all other beings, and participating, by his Father's gift, in his essence and glory. He was condemned by the general council of Nice. - - - - - 325 Year of Christ.

'To support the consubstantiality of the Son with the Father, Apollinaris contended against Arius, that Jesus Christ had not an human soul; he was condemned by the sixth council of Rome. - 377

'In opposition to him, Theodore of Mopsuestes maintained, that Jesus Christ had a soul distinct from the word, and performed actions, which were only referrible to that soul. Without it, according to him, it would be necessary to suppose, that, the divinity suffered, the divinity increased in wisdom. - 428

'Nestorius carried the system further; he asserted the existence of two distinct persons in Christ, that one was eternal, infinite, increate; that the other originated in time, was finite, and had been created. His doctrine was condemned by the third council of Ephesus. - - - 431

'Eutyches fell into the opposite extreme, asserting, that, in Jesus Christ, the divine nature only existed; his humanity being absorbed by it, as a drop of water by the ocean. Thus it was the error of Nestorius to divide the person, the error of Eutyches to confound the two natures of Christ. The doctrine of Eutyches was condemned by the council of Chalcedon, in - - - - - - 451

'In opposition to the Eutychians, some monks of Scythia asserted the proposition, "one of the Trinity has suffered for us." - - - - - 520 After Christ.

'Pope John the 2d, in a letter to the emperor Justinian, approved of the proposition, it being explained to mean, that the second person of the Trinity suffered in the flesh. - 534

'The unity of God, the Trinity of persons, being thus established in the godhead, and the two natures and unity of person being thus established in the son of God, a dispute arose on the nature of his will. Theodore, the bishop of Pharan in Arabia, asserted, and Sergius, the patriarch of Constantinople, adopted his assertion, that, in Jesus Christ, though there were two natures, there was but one will. This gave them and their adherents the name of Monothelites. Their heresy was finally condemned in the council at Rome, in - - - - - 649.

'Marcian, and Leo, his immediate successor in the throne of Constantinople, enforced the decrees of the council of Chalcedon, with great rigor.

'The emperor Justinian enacted many laws against Heretics, Pagans, Jews and Samaritans, and caused them to be carried into execution with great severity. To all of them he offered the alternative of orthodoxy or exile.

'The number of those who preferred the latter was great; and the three Arabias offered them a secure retreat: to those therefore they fled.'

Various

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Various parts of the Koran expressly refer to the religious controversies which, at the time of its publication, existed among Christians, and pointedly state the objections prevailing in Arabia against the Trinity and the Godhead of Christ. It is the repeated language of the Koran, "Say not there are three Gods, forbear this, it will be better for you, God is but one God."—"They are infidels who say, Verily God is Christ the son of Mary."—"They are certainly infidels, who say, God is the third of three." These passages clearly prove that Mohammed was a determined opposer of the doctrine of the Trinity; and his zeal and enthusiasm roused a numerous host to adopt his views:

'All accounts of Mahomet agree that from his earliest years, he was religiously inclined, and shewed great zeal against idolatry, and a strong wish for its extirpation. It is said, that Sergius, a Nestorian monk, remarked this disposition in him when, in his 13th year, he accompanied his father to the monastery in which Sergius resided. After his marriage, his zeal redoubled, and he gave himself up to a mystic and contemplative life. Once a year, he shut himself up for a whole month, in a cavern of a mountain, about three miles distant from Mecca, to meditate without interruption, on religious subjects. His temperance and ample charities to the poor procured him universal respect; his piety was so generally acknowledged, that a dispute arising, who should have the honour of placing the black stone in the temple of Mecca, the voice of the people unanimously deferred it to him. His mode of life could not but increase the fanaticism of an imagination, naturally ardent; at the age of 40, he publickly assumed the character of a prophet sent by God, to re-establish, in its purity, the religion of Abraham and Ismael.

'He addressed a willing audience of armed proselytes, who would follow him with fanaticism equal to his own, whose powerful onset neither the eastern nor western empire was likely to resist, whom first victories would elevate to irresistible valor and enterprize, and who would spread themselves over the world with all the zeal of missionaries, and the ambition of conquerors.'—

'And such was the success of their enterprize, that in less than a century from the commencement of the hegira, they spread the religion of Mahomet, from the Atlantic Ocean, to India and Tartary; and his successors reigned in Syria, Persia, Egypt, Africa and Spain. Since that time, they have been expelled from Spain; but have conquered the kingdoms of Visapour and Golconda in India, the islands of Cyprus and Rhodes and the Cyclades, and have made large territorial acquisitions in Tartary, Hungary and Greece.'

Mr. B. traces the history of Mohammedanism through the long period occupied by the dynasties and fortunes of the Universal Caliphs; giving, in distinct columns, the several dates, both according to the æra of the Hegira and that of the Christian world. Hence he proceeds to notice the irruption of the

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Mogul Tartars under *Genghiz khan* and *Timour*, into the Asiatic territories conquered by the disciples of Mohammed; and the several attempts of the princes of Christendom to repel them, commonly called the *Crusades*.

The religious tenets and literary history of the Mohammedans are thus concisely exhibited:

'In the same manner as the word "christendom" is used as a general denomination for all the countries inhabited by the nations, who profess the religon of Christ, the word *Eslam* is a general denomination for the countries inhabited by the nations that profess the religion of Mahomet. It signifies an absolute submission of mind and body to God, and to the revelation he has made of his divine will by Mahomet, his prophet. Thus, the fundamental creed of Mahomet is described in two articles, "there is but one God, and Mahomet is the apostle of God." His precepts are reduced to four; prayer, preceded by purification as a necessary preparation, fasting, alms, and a pilgrimage, once at least in a life, to the temple of Mecca. His disciples are taught to expect a day of resurrection and general judgment: they believe the doom of infidels will be everlasting punishment, to be measured by the degree of their moral guilt and obstinacy in rejecting the evidence offered them of Eslamism; but that all believers, by their faith in God, and through the intercession of Mahomet, will be admitted to everlasting felicity; that, while the felicity of the perfect, as the saints and martyrs, will be the enjoyment of a superlative degree of intellectual pleasure, the general body of Mussulmans will be blessed with an abundance of sensual enjoyments. They believe in God's absolute decrees, and the predetermination both of good and evil; in the existence of angels, whom they consider to be ministers of the word of God, pure and subtile spirits, propagated of fire. They believe, that, from the beginning, there has been a series of prophets; that, all of them were free from great sins and even great errors; and that six of them, Adam, Noah, Abraham, Moses, Jesus, and Mahomet, rising in a gradation of merit, the latter always above the former, brought new dispensations of law from heaven; that each, successively, abrogated the preceding; that many of the prophets received, from God himself, revelations in writing, of his divine will, all of which are lost except the Pentateuch, the Psalms, the Gospel and the Koran; that the three first are miserably corrupted and falsified; that the last is divinely inspired, every word, every letter of it being uncreated and incorruptible, and subsisting, through eternity, in the essence of the deity; that, God himself, by his angel Gabriel, delivered it to Mahomet his last prophet, his high priest in spiritual concerns, his supreme prince in temporals, and who, by himself or his successors, is, by the supernatural, and consequently irresistible force of his arms, to establish in every kingdom of the world, the saving doctrine of the koran. Circumcision is not mentioned in the koran; but it is practised as a divine institution, first revealed by Abraham to Mahomet. Two places they hold in particular veneration: one of them is the temple of Mecca; it contains the Cabah or square house, which has been mentioned. To the temple of Mecca every Mahometan directs his look

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look when he prays, and this supposed aspect of it, they call the *Kebla*. The other object of their veneration, is the temple at Medina, where the prophet preached and was buried. Such are the principal tenets and rites of the Mahometans, but the only necessary article of faith, the only article required to be professed by a Mussulman, is the unity of God, and the divine mission of Mahomet. Having pronounced the words, "I believe in one God, and in Mahomet the apostle of God," the proselyte is considered to be a perfect Mussulman. They look on unbelievers with contempt and abhorrence; but the Magians as followers of Abraham, the Jews as followers of Moses, and the Christians as followers of Christ, are ranked by them, far above polytheists, idolaters, and atheists. In opposition to those, they call the Magians, Jews, and Christians, from the written revelations they suppose to have been made to them, by Abraham, Moses, and Christ, the people of the written law.

'The early caliphs condemned the polytheists, idolaters and atheists, to the alternative of death, or the profession of Eslamism, but the people of the written law were always allowed the alternative of professing Eslamism, or purchasing liberty of conscience by paying tribute; and insensibly the last alternative was generally proposed to every enemy.

'The followers of Mahomet have ascribed to him both miracles and prophecies. His miracles have been said to amount to 3000, but he does not appear to have himself claimed a power of working miracles. The wonderful success of his arms, he urged as a proof of his divine mission, and contended, that none but God himself could produce a work, which should equal the koran, in grandeur of conception, in beauty or sublimity of doctrine, or in richness or elegance of language.'

It is justly observed that 'Mahomet appears to have taken his scripture history rather from the apocryphal books and traditions of the Jews and heterodox Christians, with whom Arabia abounded in his time, than from the canonical writings which compose the bible.'

A view is taken of the extent of the countries in which Mohammedanism is professed; concluding with the statement of this remarkable fact, 'that, generally speaking, from the commencement of the Hegira (A.D. 622.) to the present time, Mohammedanism has always been on the increase.'

Mr. B. makes full acknowlegement of his obligations to those writers who have furnished him with materials for the present disquisition; among whom he enumerates the Benedictine authors of the *Art de verifier les dates*, which he praises as 'a work of the greatest learning that appeared in the last century.' It certainly possesses a high reputation.

After the Koran, Mr. Butler inquires into the history and contents of the Zend-Avesta, the supposed Bible of the ancient Persians; which, it is conjectured, contains religious

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principles in their first deviation from the Patriarchal faith. We cannot, at this distance of time, ascertain how far this is really the case: but a single extract will shew that the doctrine of the Zend-Avesta is a composition of Asiatic Mythology, and of the Mosaical account, corrupted by tradition. The doctrine of Zoroaster, of two eternal independent principles,—one the cause of good, called *Ormuzd*, and the other of evil, called *Ahriman*,—figures in this system of theology, and accounts for the happiness and misery observable in the universe. While Ormuzd creates celestial Beings, Ahriman creates evil and filthy Beings, called Dews or Dwes, Peries, &c.

'With them (it is added) Ahriman attacked Ormuzd, and maintained against him, a fight of 90 days, at the end of which, Ormuzd pronounced the *Honover*, or Divine Word, and at the sound of it they fled back to their primæval darkness: then Ormuzd created *the first Ox*; it was destroyed by Ahriman; from him *Kaiomorts*, or the first man, proceeded; the Dews slew him, a tree sprung out of his seed, from which a man and woman arose, called *Meschia and Meschiane*. At first, they were pure beings, and obedient to Ormuzd: but Ahriman was envious of their happiness: to seduce them, he assumed the form of a serpent, presented them fruit, engaged them in conversation with him, and persuaded them he was the creator of the universe; they believed in him; their nature was corrupted, and their corruption infects all their posterity. Ormuzd supplies them with force sufficient to resist the attacks of Ahriman; at their decease, if the good overbalances the evil they have done, they are admitted to a paradise of spiritual and temporal delights; if their evil actions preponderate, they are condemned to unspeakable suffering: but all this is temporal; at the end of the 12,000 years from the creation of Ormuzd and Ahriman, the harmony of the universe will be re-established, and mankind restored to virtue and happiness.'

The final triumph of virtue, and the arrangement of the universe, so as ultimately to produce perfect good, is a pleasing sentiment, which appears to have been very widely diffused.

The Vedas are not dismissed without an ardent wish, on the part of Mr. Butler, to promote the study of Asiatic literature; and he recommends it to the *Merchant-Kings* of the East to apply a part of their treasures to this purpose. This idea has been adopted: but, if we are to believe certain recent communications, the establishment of a college in the East is not relished by the Directors.

Little is said of *the Kings*, the sacred book of the Chinese, because little is known; and for an account of the Edda, the reader may be referred to Mallet's Northern Antiquities.

Instead of the abrupt conclusion of this volume, we think that some general remarks and observations might have been added; by which the utility of Mr. Butler's historical researches

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scatches into the several books accounted sacred might have been illustrated.

In the first page, we meet with the singular expression of 'committing sheets to paper.' Mo-y.

ART. VII. *The Satires of Decimus Junius Juvenalis.* Translated into English Verse, by the Rev. William Heath Marsh, A. M. 8vo. pp. 238. 7s. Boards. Westley. 1804.

ALL those who are acquainted with the Satires of Juvenal must be sensible of the difficulty of transfusing their force and spirit into a modern version. Persuaded of the inutility of attacking the corrupt manners and practices of antient Rome, where *omne vitium in præcipiti stetit*, with mildness of remonstrance or the gaiety of ridicule, the satirist assumed an attitude of the most determined enmity; and he frequently exposes vice with a roughness and coarseness which cannot be literally translated without offence to delicacy. On men who, according to the nervous description of a sacred writer, "*being past feeling, had given themselves over unto lasciviousness to work all uncleanness with greediness,*" gentle applications could produce no effect: but it is unnecessary now rigidly to adopt the same course; and it proves the beneficial influence of Christianity on the state of public morals, that, however we may deplore the corruptions and profligacy of the age, such a sense of decorum prevails as must impose a degree of management on every one who undertakes a version of Juvenal. This is a restraint which, though it weakens the force of the satire, must not be disregarded; since it is better to be tamé, or to leave a passage altogether untranslated, than grossly to shock and offend. Mr. Marsh is entirely of this opinion; and his sentiments on this subject are so well expressed, that we shall transcribe that part of the Dedication (to his Preceptor, Mr. Carter,) which relates to this view of his undertaking:

'In speaking of the present work, as giving the whole of the original, I would only be understood as not having implicitly followed the very frequent omissions of the edition which we perused together, and which is certainly the only one that can be placed with propriety in the hands of youth. But, though I have greatly exceeded these bounds, from an anxious wish of retaining all that could possibly be retained of such an admirable writer, there are still some exceptionable passages, that I have entirely rejected; others that I have been obliged to soften; and a few, the sense of which I have even ventured to alter, rather than give offence to the ears of modesty. For these liberties, so rarely taken, I trust that I shall stand acquitted, even by the most enthusiastic admirers of Juvenal; since

though it may be considered as the general duty of a Translator faithfully to retrace the steps of his Author, and to pursue his progress without either diminution or addition, yet is our obligation greater to regard the rules of decency and virtue. It is gratifying indeed to reflect that those delineations, which, in the time of Juvenal, we must conclude were absolutely requisite to deter from vice, are no longer necessary. The horrid enormities which now appear to disfigure the pages of the Roman Bard are, fortunately for us, almost unknown; and the public would turn with abhorrence and disgust from this picture, in a modern work, as existing only in the depraved imagination of the Poet.'

Mr. Marsh speaks with so much modesty on his venturing before the public as a translator of Juvenal, so soon after the appearance of Mr. Gifford's version, that we could not suspect him of meaning to exhibit himself as that gentleman's competitor: but he assures us that he had never seen Mr. Gifford's work till his own was entirely completed; and that, on examination, he found a sufficient difference in the general manner between Mr. G.'s version and his own, to form his excuse in hazarding the present publication.

On comparing the two translations, Mr. Marsh will appear less paraphrastic than Mr. Gifford: but this is no merit in the eye of the English reader, unless explanatory notes had been subjoined. In translating the first six lines of Juvenal, Mr. G. employs ten lines in English, while in Mr. M.'s version the passage occupies no more space than the original. Till we turned to the *errata*, we accused this translator of making the next passage unnecessarily short, by omitting the line

Expectes eadem a summo, minimoque poeta,

but we there found that it had produced a couplet:

'The best and worst in this respect unite,
And to these subjects claim an equal right.'

Mr. Gifford has rendered it,

"While high and low as the mad fit invades
Bellow the same dull nonsense through the shades."

The picture which Juvenal has drawn of the masculine Mævia, who seems to have resembled a certain Yorkshire lady, loses its effect in the present translation, by the circumstances which mark her character being lost in a general description.

"*Mævia Tuscum*
Figat aprum, et nuda teneat venabula mammâ,"

is a portrait which a painter might copy: but the lines—

—'Mævia

——— 'Mævia hunts the boar
(Her sex's grand distinction priz'd no more,')

do not explain in what degree this lady had thrown aside the modesty of her sex. Mr. G. was more faithful, but he occupied three lines in delineating the picture which Juvenal sketched in less than one and a half;

"When Mævia, all the woman laid aside,
Enters the lists, and to the middle bare,
Hurls at the Tuscan boar the quivering spear."

We shall not pursue a comparison of these two translations, but shall confine our attention solely to the work before us. The passage in the first Satire, beginning with *aude aliquid*, and ending with *farrago libelli*, is thus given by Mr. Marsh:

'Dare boldly then, if riches thou wouldst raise,
Heap crime on crime! for Virtue pines on praise.
'Tis vice alone supplies the wealth of *most*,
Their mansions, gardens, and their plate *imbost*.
O! who can taste the tranquil bliss of life,
When the sire keeps the son's corrupted wife?
When curst espousals mark th' excess of sin,
And vice buds forth upon the callow chin?
Indignant wrath shall nature's wants supply,
And lash to action such a bard as *I*.
'From that far distant period, when the main
Rush'd o'er its bounds, and delug'd all the plain;
When first Deucalion to an anchor brought,
On some high cliff, his bark, and anxious sought
Propitious oracles; when stones were hurl'd
Warm with new life, replenishing the world;
What pleases, vexes, agitates mankind,
Shall, from my wand'ring muse, attention find.'

Such a line as

'And lash to action such a bard as *I*'

we cannot approve; and we are still less satisfied with the manner in which the very rich and full period contained in the last two lines of the original—

Quicquid agunt homines, votum, timor, ira, voluptas,
Gaudia, discursus, nostri est farrago libelli,—

is weakened in this new version.

A few lines below, in the same page, a couplet will be found which is not English; though this defect may be remedied by simply changing *but* into *the*.—Again:

'While Peace, Faith, Virtue, Victory, tower on high,
And Concord, *whence the storks salute the sky*,'

is

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is a literal translation: but, without a note, what will the English reader understand by the words in italics?—

'Whole boars are dress'd, that amply would provide
For numerous guests:'—

these lines do not convey the idea of Juvenal's

Animal propter convivia natum,

viz. an animal created for the purpose of furnishing a feast.

The concluding couplet of the first Satire in Mr. Marsh's version is made obscure by the omission of the word *cinis*:

'Check my first wishes, and securely stray,
Along the Latin and Flamminian way.'

We recommend him to adopt something like the following alteration:

'Check my first rage, and 'mid their ashes stray,
Who skirt the Latin or Flamminian way.

In the 2d Satire, Mr. M. by rendering

Qui Curios simulant et Bacchanalia vivunt

'Sages in speech and Bacchanals in deeds,'

has succeeded better than Mr. Gifford: but we cannot pay him this compliment for the couplet in the third Satire, which corresponds with the line

Quid Romæ faciam? mentiri nescio—

since, though he has not fallen into the exact redundancy of his predecessor, he has been guilty of one equally exceptionable—

'Why should I stay at Rome? I scorn deceit,
And nonsense ever my contempt must meet.'

The beginning of the sixth Satire, which is pointedly directed against the female sex, is not unhappily executed by Mr. M. Let the reader judge:

'When Saturn rul'd as universal lord,
I can believe was Chastity ador'd;
When rude-built huts receiv'd, without parade,
Gods, men, and herds, beneath one common shade;
While rustic house-wives, on bleak mountains bred,
With leaves and skins adorn'd the nuptial bed.
O how unlike to Cynthia, prais'd of late!
Or Lesbia weeping at her sparrow's fate.
Babes strong and vig'rous claim'd parental care;
Alike unpolish'd liv'd the simple pair.
Diff'rent were men while Nature yet was young,
When from cleft oaks, or clay, at first they sprung:

Much,

Much, or at least some modesty appear'd,
When Jove, but beardless Jove, the sceptre rear'd
When yet unperjur'd were the sons of Greece;
When unsuspecting Innocence in peace
Repos'd her head; ere guards or bolts were known,
None seiz'd another's right, or fear'd to lose his own.
At length Astræa, of celestial birth,
Withdrew, by slow degrees, her smiles from earth;
Shock'd at our crimes, she sought her ancient reign,
And her pure sister follow'd in her train.'

Of all the pieces of Juvenal, his tenth Satire possesses the greatest merit; and we never peruse it without admiration of the strong good sense of the writer, and of the admirable moral lesson with which it concludes. It is impossible to do full justice to this part of the original, but Mr. Marsh has tolerably expressed the sense. With this passage our extracts must conclude:

'Must we then wish for nothing?—My advice
Would leave the Gods to judge what best suffice
Our num'rous wants, for they alone can know
From what pure fount life's real blessings flow.
For transient joys substantial good is giv'n:
Dearer than to himself is man to heav'n.
We, urg'd by passion, by blind impulse led,
Implore the Gods to bless the nuptial bed;
They must determine whether babes or wife
Will prove the comfort, or the bane of life.
'But that our pray'rs may still to something tend,
That we may supplicate, and not offend,
To this alone be our requests confin'd:
"Vouchsafe us health of body, peace of mind;
A dauntless soul that looks without dismay
On death, that sees existence glide away,
Grateful to nature; can endure, refrain,
Placid, nor too solicitous of gain;
The toils of Hercules would rather court,
Than such love-banquets and unmanly sport,
As pleas'd th' Assyrian king." I thus advise—
The path to happiness thro' virtue lies.
Did Prudence o'er our erring race preside,
Blest might we live, and need no other guide;
But thee, O Fortune! to the skies we raise,
Extol thy pow'r, and celebrate thy praise.'

Though Mr. M. deems no apology necessary for the omission of notes and illustrations, we cannot be of his opinion; since the expressions of a classical writer are often unintelligible without explanation.

Mo-y.

Art.

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ART VIII. *Mémoires du Comte Joseph de Puisaye*, &c.; *i. e.* Memoirs of Count Joseph de Puisaye, Lieutenant-General, &c., forming a History of the French Royalist Party during the late Revolution. Vols. I. and II. 8vo. 14s. Boards. Budd, &c. London.

IT has been sometimes said that no delinquent ever published an account of his life without convicting himself; and whether the position be *universally* true or not, it must be granted that it has been verified in a great many instances. Grave suspicions, it is well known, have been entertained respecting the author and subject of these memoirs; and the existence of them is not only admitted in the work itself, but its professed object is to remove them by the plain exposure of the transactions in which M. de Puisaye was concerned. He explicitly avows that he is out of favour with Louis XVIII. and his family, and obnoxious to his council; and he even goes so far as to say that, in the case of that Prince's restoration, (which he thinks is by no means an improbable event, as a revolution of twenty-four hours may effect it,) he should not return to his native country, but remain still a subject of his Britannic Majesty.

Assuming the principle above laid down, the reader may be curious to learn what is the judgment which we have formed of this suitor at the bar of the public. If such a wish exists in any breast, we are not able at present satisfactorily to gratify it, because the subject is not fully before us; these volumes forming only a part of the writer's memoirs, leaving him at the moment of his escape to England, and at an instant short of that period to which the most serious of the accusations preferred against him belong. As far as the account of his conduct extends, however, we see no ground for impeaching it. If we do not subscribe to all his principles, nor coincide in all his views, we are not prepared to condemn nor even to censure them. He represents himself as warmly attached to his sovereign, and firmly devoted to the welfare and interests of his country; and we do not see in his public acts, at least such of them as are stated here, aught that is inconsistent with these respectable claims. In our judgment, he might be faithful to his king without being guilty of extremes, without being a bigot to the former system, and without partaking in the puerile and sottish delusions of Coblentz. We do not regard his loyalty as questionable because he did not hastily fly from his natal soil, nor attempt to incite foreign powers to coerce and cashier his countrymen; and we are certainly little inclined to class him with the rebellious because he thought that reforms consistent with the nature of the French monarchy were

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were eligible, and because in other circumstances he conceived that great concessions on the part of the king were become expedient, as being unavoidable. Neither should we represent him as tinctured with Jacobinism, because he may think that the royal return should be a matter of compromise, that the monarch should not hesitate to signify his readiness to adopt an improved plan of government, to abandon antient prejudices, and to be influenced by actual circumstances; nor do we regard him as impious, disloyal, and unworthy of confidence, because he may think that there were men of ability and good intentions in all the parties. If we cannot approve of insurrection at the early period in which he states that he was digesting plans for setting it on foot, it is but justice to him to add that we do not find him in arms till a monster had griped the sceptre, against whom it surely could be no civil nor moral offence to rebel.

Having thus frankly stated our sentiments with regard to M. de Puisaye, on the above points we shall take leave to observe that we should have preferred the narrative, and have viewed the author with more confidence, if it had been less frequently interrupted by professions of candour, and by *diatribes* in favour of liberality; if it had been more brief and direct; and if it had been submitted at once complete to the world. Why all this preliminary parrying? Why is the pulse of Europe, as it were, to be previously felt? Why does the tale stop short at the part which is most interesting, and which chiefly affects the character of the author? All this raises in the mind suspicions of management which a strait-forward line of conduct does not require. Yet far be it from us to infer a bad heart, where perhaps only the head has been injudicious. If the matter be ever laid fully before us, we shall honestly report our final sentiments with regard to it, without fear or bias; and in the mean time, we shall proceed to discuss the present volumes, in the point of view in which they are chiefly interesting to the English reader; namely, as they throw light on a period of as high import as any that is to be found in history. In this respect, they have very considerable claims to attention, since they abound in facts and observations made by a person of attainments and talents, who was a leading actor in the scenes which he delineates.

M. de Puisaye ascribes the failure of the royalist cause to the emigration, to the weak councils of the Princes, to their error in placing reliance on foreign potentates, to the premature commencement of the war, and to the selfish and narrow policy on which it was conducted.—We agree with him in regarding the emigration as a most unfortunate and impolitic measure;

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measure; and many of his observations on this subject are eminently just: but there is a fallacy in the reasoning which infers from the success of the nobles in the western departments, that, if persons of this class had remained in all the other parts of the kingdom, the same results would have attended their efforts. He is, we believe, better founded in stating the bigoted attachment of all the members of the Bourbon family to the antient order of things; since universal report, the style of their public instruments, and their silence respecting any disposition to compromise, or to conform to circumstances, prove that this charge has not been groundlessly made.

M. de Calonne, we are told, quitted ease and affluence, gave his services to the princes, and laid the whole of his fortune at their feet: but he was too sincere and enlightened long to retain his situation near them; and, through the intrigues of frivolous courtiers, he was speedily turned adrift on the world, in a state of absolute beggary. When Monsieur (now Louis XVIII.) held his court at Coblentz, scarcely a man in his suite was capable of acting in the difficult circumstances to which the royal interests were reduced; his retainers were persons of the most insignificant kind, as incapable of just reflection as of energetic conduct; and they regarded the awful enterprize in which they were about to embark, and which was to decide their fortune for ever, as a hunting party, or as a journey to Fontainebleau or Compiégne. In their meetings, it was said that the subjection of France would prove at most the work of one campaign: that the regiments of the line which they had commanded would, at the very sight of them, lay down their arms; and that the republican forces, reduced to raw artisans and peasants, would furnish only pursuit without battles, or victories without glory. At an early period, they considered themselves as sufficient in number to reduce the whole kingdom, and regarded new-comers with jealousy. Those whom their private affairs had occasioned to arrive late were received with coldness, and with difficulty acknowleged; and eight days priority on the list of emigration was considered as a proof of superior merit;—a line of conduct which drove back some men of the highest merit, to join the armies of the *Committee of Public Safety*. All the intrigues of a court were carried on among their attendants; and their ears were as much fenced against the entrance of truth, as those of the most powerful monarch in the days of his highest prosperity. Men, whose sole merit consisted in courtly address, in soft, artful, and insinuating speeches, and in consuming a share of the scanty allowance of the Princes, employed themselves successfully in prejudicing the minds of these high personages against those who

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who were sacrificing their fortunes, and endangering their lives, in favour of the royal cause. It was, says the author, to the interposition of these persons between the Princes and their adherents in the interior, that we are to ascribe the gradual decline and the final extinction of their party in France.—We must observe, however, that this abject state of the Bourbon interest does not very well agree with the admission made by the author, of the probable restoration of Louis XVIII.; and indeed the weakness of the royal councils, the prejudices by which they are swayed, and the state of society and the distribution of property at present existing in France, seem to place insurmountable obstacles to this termination of the contest.

M. de Puisaye maintains that the premature commencement of the war proved another cause of the failure of the royalists. He does not, with many others, deny the right of foreign states to wage war on France on account of its internal affairs; he even contends for it: but it is with the season of exercising it that he finds fault. He thinks that the weakness of the government of France had no doubt been considered, in the adjustment of the balance under which Europe found tranquillity; but this government could not be exchanged for another, without its becoming incumbent on all provident states to watch the event, and to interfere to preclude the interruption of the general tranquillity which it was likely to occasion. In such an emergency, a defensive league is the measure which he recommends; and he strongly deprecates one that is offensive in the first instance, clearly displaying the inconveniences that arose from that which caused the revolutionary war. An offensive foreign war strengthened the authority of those who were in possession of power, and confounded their cause with that of the country; while it furnished millions of soldiers, whose numbers and irregular impetuosity supplied the want of skill and experience. Had a defensive plan been followed, the evil would gradually have consumed itself in its own focus; contagion would have spread less; the contests in the interior would have been more general and more animated; and if the mischief would not, as in England, have thus come to an end, it would have been easy for a powerful foreign confederacy to have given the desirable turn to affairs. He contends that it was to be foreseen that a war, so prematurely begun as was that between the coalesced powers and France, would terminate, as it actually did, in being beneficial to the Jacobins, and most prejudicial to the general interests of Europe. Not only, he maintains, was the war too much precipitated, but it was conducted on principles which must infallibly render it unsuccessful. The parties to the general league were influenced by

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individual views, instead of being actuated by a regard to the welfare of the European community. When the French nation, he tells us, saw that the object of the powers in arms against it was to strip it of provinces, to seize its colonies, to reduce it to insignificance, or even to annihilate it as a state; when it beheld the Imperial eagle waving over the ramparts of Quesnoy, Valenciennes, and Condé; when it was agreed in a council, consisting of members belonging to various nations, to dismantle the harbour and to burn the shipping in the road of Toulon: when they heard Wurmser invite the inhabitants of Alsace to share in the happiness of becoming Germans; when it found the kings at war so indifferent to its internal interests, as to omit the precaution of binding by an oath the prisoners released from the captured fortresses, not to fight against the royalists of the western departments;—it was natural that it should lose all confidence in them, and unite as one man to resist their attacks; that it should turn its attention from temporary sufferings, however keen and poignant, to a more imminent and lasting danger; that it should endure painful wounds, to save its existence; that it should resolve to suffer within, in order to protect itself from being crushed from without; that it should submit to the yoke of a Robespierre, rather than see its territory the prey of foreign violence.

Satisfied, however, that it had become the duty of all good Frenchmen to resist by force the Jacobin faction, when it could be done with safety and effect, M. de Puisaye had retired to his own province to digest and mature plans, in order to carry his scheme into execution. While thus employed, the departmental war broke out. It was utterly foreign from his intentions to have made a common cause with the proscribed deputies: but de Wimpffen having precipitately espoused their party, his friendship for and connection with that General forced him to join in that insurrection. His plans being thus defeated, and the opposition to the convention having proved unsuccessful, he was advised to consult his safety by retiring into Brittany. Previously to his arrival in that province, the Marquis de Rouarie, availing himself of the discontents which religious persecution had universally excited, had organized an insurrection which would have extended over all its parts. This nobleman held his command from the French Princes; and they took their directions from the coalesced powers, with regard to the instructions which they transmitted to Brittany. Having received the commands of his superiors to raise the whole province on a certain day, he formed his measures accordingly, and the necessary steps were adopted to ensure a general rising of the royalists. A very little while before the day fixed, or-

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ders came to defer his muster: but the time would not allow of his sending notice to all stations; partial risings therefore took place; the vigilance of the Convention was roused; and its wonted vengeance was inflicted. The injury thus done to the royal cause was, in the author's opinion, such as exceeded all calculation. Had Rouarie been allowed to act without control, the Jacobins would have been expelled for ever, and the province rendered incapable of being reduced by any force which the Convention could send against it. Such was the terror produced by the executions and tortures which followed the discovery of Rouarie's plans, that the number of Bretons who lived on the surface of the earth was inferior to that of those who sought concealment within its bowels. Nine hundred in the town of Rennes alone, who were supposed to have emigrated, remained invisible, concealed in the most incommodious and confined places, and were harboured by their friends at the imminent risk of their own lives. These unhappy beings only quitted their retreats for a few moments during the night, in order to take the air and some nourishment, which consisted merely of the pittance which the family could spare from its necessities, as the members of each were inscribed on the outer door; and if any one family laid in more provisions than seemed adequate to its wants, this was sure to be observed, and a domiciliary visit was the consequence.

Though the horrors committed by the agents of the Convention had stunned the inhabitants of this ill-fated province, the unceasing persecutions under which they suffered made them again resolve on resistance; and M. de Puisaye, who now resided in the midst of them, was invited to be their leader; which situation he accepted. If the new commander was less thwarted by foreign control than his predecessor, his authority was less extensive, and the various bodies of insurgents acted independently. Had these all been subjected to his command, and obedient to his orders, he assures us that Brittany might still, with the greatest ease, have been severed for ever from the conventional domination. It was to the want of a supreme command that we are to ascribe the massacre of Machecoul, the neglect of the Vendéean army to seize the whole of Upper Brittany, its fatal course towards Mans, and its subsequent ill-judged march into Normandy; and it was this want of concert that rendered ineffectual the matchless exertions of the insurgents of the western departments. The whole of the account here given confirms the notion generally entertained, that if one of the Princes of the blood, or a person of great authority commissioned by them, had taken the command in

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the western departments, a most serious if not a fatal blow to Jacobin ascendancy might have been struck.

The author paints in very favourable colours the manners and dispositions of the inhabitants of the insurgent provinces. They did not prove refractory till goaded by incessant persecution; and their resistance did not assume the appearance of being frantic, till every species of horror had been practised among them, till all the arts of torture had been exhausted on them. He repels the charges of cruelty and pillage circulated by their enemies, and draws a flattering picture of the state of society which prevailed among them.

'La Vendée (he says) will live while there is any recollection of the revolution. Its well-meant, disinterested, and heroic exertions will be set against those atrocities for which France will have occasion long to blush. I shall not attempt to write its history. I leave to the accurate General Beauvois, and to the eloquent Abbé Bernier, the task of tracing facts which bear the impression of their talents and their courage. Let those who have survived so many intrepid defenders of their liberty, of their religion, and of their laws, substitute truth for falsehoods, which have imposed on the present generation. Let their pens inform future generations that on one day, at the same hour, on all the points of Poitou and Anjou, all the inhabitants rose at once, without any other impulse than that of their own feelings, without any other object than justice, without any other guide than their courage, without any other weapons than their own hands! Let them relate how these simple unsophisticated persons overturned all that was opposed to them, rendered themselves masters of all the posts, towns, depôts, and magazines, and of an immense artillery! Let them relate how in six weeks they snatched more than one hundred thousand muskets from the hands of soldiers sent to fight with them; how they gained whole legions to their cause by their moderation and clemency, and in a short time banished every trace of pretended republicanism from their territory. Let them celebrate the first chiefs of this people, and represent how Stoflet and Catilineau, born in humble life, shewed themselves worthy of the highest rank. Let them rescue the names of d'Elbée, of Bonchamps, of Escure, of La Roche Jacquelin, and of so many others, from beneath heaps of victims, commit them to the hands of history, and assign them the places which their virtues claim for them. Let them not forget to record this noble trait of Bonchamps, who on the bed of death, sinking under his wounds, on learning that a ferocious enemy had cut the throats of all his men whom they had taken prisoners, yet ordered, conjured, supplicated, and prevailed, that reprisals should not be made on ten thousand soldiers of the Convention, but that they should be restored to their families. Will it be believed that these wretches, on being liberated, and transported over the Loire, finding some artillery there, fired grape shot on their deliverers! Let them be told how each success of the allies became fatal

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fatal to the royalists, in letting loose on them armies of prisoners, who, bound by oaths not to fight against the coalesced kings, were placed under no tie which was to hinder them from carrying fire and sword into the heart of those provinces which had remained faithful to their own king. They will also have to relate the painful truth, that the best of causes, and the assemblage of prodigious means to ensure its success, must inevitably fail, while the general interest remains too weak to silence the passions of individuals, and to arrest the intrigues to which they give rise.'

Many original traits of the revolution, and ingenious reflections on its progress, occur in the course of these volumes, of which our limits will not allow us to take notice, but which cannot fail highly to interest the intelligent reader. Jo.

ART. IX. *The Costume of the Russian Empire*, illustrated by a Series of Seventy-three Engravings. With Descriptions in English and French. Imperial 4to. 8l. 8s. Boards. Miller.

OF the splendid and very expensive publications, to the series of which this volume belongs, we have already noticed the *Costume of China*, and the *Costume of Turkey* *; and as this is exactly on the same plan, we shall pursue the method which we formerly adopted, in preparing an account of it. In one respect, this collection of engravings has an advantage over its predecessors; since the numerous nations and tribes, of which the vast Russian empire is composed, present a wider field of variety both in character and costume than Turkey or even China. We have seen the original Russian publication brought to this country by Mr. Hatchett, from which the plates before us are professedly copied; and having attentively compared them, we can bear testimony to the general fidelity of the artist employed by the publisher: but we regret that the landscape in the Russian plates was not also introduced, because it served to relieve the nakedness of the figures. We remarked, moreover, that a sufficient attention had not always been paid to the attitudes and countenances of the originals: since some of these characters, in their face and air, more resemble individuals whom we may meet in the streets of London, than such as must be encountered among the rude and savage barbarians of the Czar's dominions. The Russian work contains 95 plates, of which only 73 are here copied: but, as it is intimated in the preface, none of any consequence are omitted, excepting those of an Armenian and his wife, (for which a sufficient reason is assigned,) the others being merely duplicates of the same figures in different attitudes. No de-

* See M. R. Vols. xxxiii. N. S. p. 354. and xxxix. p. 276.

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scriptions accompanied the plates as they were published at Petersburgh *, but the title of each is briefly given at the bottom in Russian, German and French. To whom the English public is indebted for the present elucidations, we are not informed: but we are assured that they 'have been derived from the most authentic sources, more particularly from Professor Müller's *Description de toutes les Nations de l'Empire de Russie—Voyage en Sibérie, par D'Auteroche—Description de Kamtshatka, par M. Kracheninnikow*—Pleschüf's Survey of the Russian Empire—Saür's Account of Commodore Billing's Expedition to the northern parts of Russia, &c. &c. as well as from information procured from several gentlemen, who have been resident for some time in different parts of that empire.' If the names of these *several* gentlemen had been subjoined, they would probably have given a sanction to this department of the publication.

An observation is made with relation to the vastness of the region, over which the different characters here exhibited are scattered; and, as it forms a proper introduction, we shall transcribe it:

'The Russian Empire is of an extent unknown to other modern nations, and hardly equalled by that of the Romans in the summit of their power. It embraces within its limits, nations the most various, with countries and climates the most opposite. Its extent from North to South is fifty degrees of latitude, *if we reckon to the North pole*, while its length from west to east is more than one hundred and seventy degrees of longitude. It touches the Frozen Ocean of the north, and borders on the warm climates of Persia, Japan and China, on the south. It occupies more than a seventh part of the known continent, and almost a twenty-sixth part of the whole globe.'

In mere extent, the Russian Empire makes a great figure: but of what frozen and uninhabited wastes does a great portion of it consist? and of what moment is it to reckon territory extending to the North Pole? The fact is that the population of this empire is small, compared with its geographical surface, and is composed of materials which are incapable of being amalgamated and formed into one whole. A list of the plates, which we shall in part copy, will serve to impress the reader with this conviction. A Laplander—A Peasant of Finland—A Woman of Esthonia—A female Peasant of Ingria—A Tcheremhisian Woman—A Tchouvashian Female—A female Mordvine—A Votiakian Woman—An Ostiak in his

* They were begun in 1776 and finished in 1779, under the care and at the expence of C. W. Müller, at the desire of the late Empress, and were to be illustrated by the separate work hereafter mentioned, which the Professor did not live to complete.

Hunting-

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Hunting-Dress (it should have been added, hunting the Ermine) A Tartar of Kazan—A female Tartar of the Nagai Tribe—A Kabardinian—A Boukharian of Siberia—A Bashkirian Woman—A Mestcherakian Woman—A Barabinzian Girl—A Kirghi, on horseback—A female Katchintzian Tartar—A female Schaman—A female Tartar of the Tribe of Teleonti—A Yakouti Tartar—A Samoyed—A Tungoose—An Inhabitant of Kamtshatka, in his Winter Dress—A Schaman of Kamtshatka—A Koriak—An Aleutian—A Kurilian—A Kalmuk—A female Bratzkiye—A Mongole Priest or Lama—A Merchant of Kalouga—A married Woman of Waldai—A Russian Peasant. Some of these tribes can scarcely be ranked in the class of civilized beings; and the dominion of the Czar over them is little more than nominal.

We shall transcribe some of the descriptions which accompany the plates, as we did in noticing the preceding works of the same nature.

'*An Ostiak of the* (river) *Obe.*—Before the Russians conquered Siberia, it was under the dominion of the Tartars, who gave the name of Ouschtaik, signifying savage, to the nations, who inhabit it, as a mark of their contempt: hence they were called Ostiaki. The Ostiaks are divided into two branches; those who live in the vicinity of the river Obe, and those who are established about the Obdor and Berezof. The Ostiaki are the most numerous nations of Siberia, where the population, on account of the rigour of the climate, is not very great. These people seldom exceed the middle size, and *are not remarkable for their beauty* *; their complexion is yellowish, and their hair generally a deep red, yet they are not ill made. They are in a state of great barbarism, and get their living chiefly by hunting and fishing, as none of them cultivate the soil. They have neither horses, *beasts* (oxen), nor sheep; their live stock consists of rein-deer, of which some have upwards of two hundred; they employ them in draught. Their dress is generally formed of the skins of different animals and furs. They wear short trowsers; their stockings are made of skin, which go all over the feet, and serve them for boots; which they strengthen, by placing the skin double for the sole. They have a sort of jacket next their skin, and over all they put a long coat, with close sleeves, which has a hood that entirely covers their head, and only leaves out the face; and in very cold weather they even wear another over this.'

'*A female Schaman.*—The numerous Pagan nations who inhabit the vast extent of the Russian Empire, are distinguished by three distinct kinds of idolatry: those who profess Schamanism, those who

* Yet in plate 20, representing a female Ostiak in a veil, which in the Russian plate completely obscures the features, the English copier has not only rendered the whole countenance visible, but has made it resemble a beautiful English female.—*Rev.*

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are followers of the Lama, and those under the government of the Brahmins. The first of these sects, with its various branches, is by far the most numerous, as well as the most ancient, and is in fact the foundation of the other two, and also the multitude of lesser sects, into which Paganism branches. Among the Russian nations, however, Schamanism, from various causes, is now become a mass of unintelligible contradictions, idolatrous absurdities, and the grossest superstitions. In every part of the empire, where Schamanism prevails, the women are regarded as an inferior race of beings; the men believe them to have been created merely for sensual gratification, for preserving the population of the earth, and for domestic duties; their treatment of them is consequently very severe, and their opinion of them made up of contempt and neglect. Notwithstanding all this, the women are admitted into the religious orders, and become priestesses, who are as much venerated as the priests themselves, and have equal power. The people suppose that particular individuals are appointed by the Deity for this office; and if a new-born child is subject to cramps, convulsions, and many other diseases, they consider it as peculiarly fitted for religious duties. Both the priests and priestesses are taken from the mass of the people, and are not distinguished from the rest, but by their singular mode of dress, and a more extended acquaintance with the tenets of their religion. They are neither enjoined celibacy nor any peculiar mode of living; nor have they a sufficient income, on which to live, without following the occupations of the other inhabitants. The knowledge, however, which even the best instructed have of their religion, is not much; it is frequently obscure, imperfect, and contradictory. The different nations, where Schamanism prevails, have different idolatrous ceremonies; and the Schamans, or priests, even among the same nations, sometimes differ in their various ceremonies. Of these ceremonies it is impossible, in a work of this nature, to enter into the detail.'

'*A female Schaman, shewing the back part of her Dress.*—The Schamans dress themselves in the most fantastic and grotesque manner, under the idea, that they by these means make themselves agreeable to God, and formidable to men; and on this account, their whole endeavour is to surpass each other in singularity. Their dress also differs very much according to the *nations they are of*. The present plate, as well as the last, exhibits a female Schaman, or priestess, of the Katchintzi tribe, of the district of Kraynoyarsk. Their dress is distinguished by various idolatrous ornaments made of plates of iron, of the claws of birds, of stripes of different cloths and furs, and skins of animals; while their caps are generally bordered with the skin of the lynx, and a plume of owls' feathers. A sort of tamborine is the constant companion of the Schamans; it is made of wood and covered on one side with skin, on the other side a bar runs across, by which they hold it; this skin is frequently covered with hieroglyphic characters, sometimes with the forms of idols or different animals. The instrument with which they strike the tamborine is merely made of a piece of wood, and covered with the skin of a hare with the fur on, or of some other similar animal. To this magical instrument they attribute very great power, and pretend that they can, by beating upon it, cause

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cause spirits (in which they believe) to appear or disappear at pleasure. The principles of Schamanism are chiefly as follow: they believe in one God, the creator of every thing, whom the different nations call by different names; a number of inferior gods govern the world, chiefly according to their own wills, although they are all subordinate to the Deity. All the celestial bodies are divinities as well as some terrestrial objects, such as fire, water, mountains, &c. There are also evil deities of whom there is a supreme, who is next to God in power: these live in rivers, forests, mountains, &c. &c. Their sole delight is in tormenting mankind. The people are persuaded, that the gods appear to their Schamans under different shapes, but particularly in the form of a bear; for which animal they have a great respect. They believe in a state after death, but their ideas of it are strange and ridiculous. To the good deities, which are represented under various idolatrous forms, they offer sacrifices and prayers, which they are sure will be attended to. In spite, however, of all the absurdities in Schamanism, an attentive inquirer may perceive some similarity to the Mosaic religion. The sacred fires, the oblations, the adorations, the opinions concerning women, and many other tenets of the Schamans, have perhaps been borrowed from the religion of the Jews.'

'*An Aleutian.*—From Cape Lopatka, the most southern point of Kamtshatka, there runs a chain of islands towards the north-east, which terminate near the coast of America: these are called the Aleutan isles, or by the Russians, Aleoutskie. They have each of them a different name, which it is not necessary to enumerate; the one most known to us, from the discoveries of Captain Cook, is Oonolashka, which lies almost close to the American continent. Not much is known of the manners and customs of the inhabitants of these islands. They are now almost all tributary to the Russians, of whose exactions and hard usage they sometimes complain very bitterly. Their external character and appearance differ very much from the inhabitants of the more southern islands, the Kurilians, nor are they so mild and civilized in their manners. These children of nature live in the most independent state with respect to each other; they acknowledge no chief or superior. Their whole attention is occupied with the present moment; they forget the past, and do not regard the future: nor in general have the different islands much connection or intercourse with each other, but for the purpose of exchange of commodities. They must, however, be considered as ingenious, as appears from their bows and arrows, their canoes or baidars, and even their dress, which consists of one piece variously ornamented. Still they are not so clever as the Kurilians. When the heat of their short summers will allow of it, they frequently appear, men, women and children, entirely naked, having no idea of impropriety or shame attached to it; and this is much more frequently the case in their cabins, where they do not suffer from the cold.'

This very cheap and truly paradisaical Costume is not represented in the plate: but the Aleutian is decently habited quite down to his toes.

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The style of these descriptions is often bald and incorrect; as for instance, *fer blanc* is translated '*white iron*' instead of tin; 'little offspring,' for few offspring, 'Nova *Zemlia*' for Nova Zembla, &c. In the account of the Tschutski, who inhabit the north-eastern promontory of Siberia, we are informed that 'their summer is short, and during part of it the sun never sets, but yet never shines with meridian and southern lustre.' The French description is much more perspicuous: '*Le soleil ne se couche jamais, mais il n'y brille pas du même éclat que sous la ligne, et dans les pays méridionaux.*'

This elegant work is gratefully dedicated to Mr. Charles Hatchett, so well known in the annals of chemical and mineralogical science, for having liberally supplied the original whence it has been formed.

The *Costume of Austria* has also been published, and we propose to speak of it in our next Number.

Moy.

ART. X. *Correspondence in a Series of Letters between a Gentleman in Berlin and a Person of Distinction in London,* from August 1803, to June 1804. 8vo. pp. 190. 5s. Boards. Dresden printed. Sold by Budd, &c. London.

IT appears to us that this publication may be ascribed to the same source with the *Plan of National Improvement,* and the *Sketches of the Strength of France and Russia,* which we lately recommended to the attention of our readers. (Rev. Vol. xlii. pp. 306. and 381.) On the present occasion, the writer hazards opinions on our internal affairs, on our public characters, and on our external policy, of which we deem ourselves more competent to form a judgment than of his preceding topics; and though we differ from him on several of these points, we still continue to respect his information, and to applaud his patriotism. As before, however, we shall nearly abstain from remarks, in order to communicate the fuller portion of the interesting matter which is here presented to us.

The writer of the preface, who professes to be a different person from the author, states that the latter 'lays it down as a principle, that until the dominion of France be confined within the limits of the late monarchy, Great Britain cannot enjoy peace. It is his opinion, that if the entire independence of Holland and Spain be not secured, the French project to subjugate the British kingdoms will never be abandoned. He is not sanguine that the present quarrel will produce any thing very important to either party; he calls this the second Punic war, and predicts that the third is not far distant, that it will be

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be a terrible conflict and will finally decide the contest.' The preparations, which he recommends to be made for the above awful struggle, are such as would render the intervening peace a mere cessation of hostilities.

If it be humiliating, it may at the same time be profitable, for us to learn this author's sentiments on the state of political information among us; which he specifies by way of introducing his opinion on the conduct of a Northern Potentate, which has been very much a topic of discussion in this country:

'With respect to the policy of the king of Prussia, in suffering a French army to surround the frontiers of his dominions from Anspach by Wessel to Lubeck, it will be, I am afraid, on my part labour lost to offer you, an English politician, any opinion whatever. Although, of all the people in Europe, the English are the least acquainted with the powers and politics of other states, yet, such is your mania for political reasoning and dogmatical argument, that you will neither allow to other governments the capacity to care for their own interests, nor the honesty to maintain their engagements with their neighbours. Be pleased to know Sir! that to account for the conduct of the king of Prussia upon this occasion, you must be acquainted with the internal strength of the Prussian monarchy; and likewise with the political relationships and future prospects of that government.'

Bonaparte, he observes, invaded Hanover without the knowlege, and contrary to the expectation, of the Court of Berlin; and he says that the king of Prussia never enters into a war unless he can discover that it will have a favourable termination. He next enumerates the grounds of the mutual interest which unites Prussia and France; the former is weaker than is generally imagined; and it cannot exist without the protection of its present ally, whose support it engages, because its forces would serve as an *avant garde* in the case of a war with Russia. If the declaimers against the conduct of Frederic IV. would peruse the curious and sensible observations before us, they would, we believe, discover their error, and prefer silence to the rant in which they have so long indulged. It is here said to have been the plan of the Great Frederic, to extend the dominion of the House of Brandenburg from the Vistula, by the Rhine, to the Texel and Cuxhaven; and the author does not seem to be hostile to this project.

The object of Russia, we are told, from the time of Peter the Great to the present moment, has uniformly been to obtain a dictatorial influence in the politics of Europe. Its cabinet feels no partiality for the British; and the respect in which they were held was in a great measure destroyed by the interferences in favour of Turkey and Poland, and by the attempt to detach Denmark from its interests: but its policy dictates

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the obstruction of France in her hostility against Great Britain, and in her attempts to attain a naval preponderancy. The author admits that Russia would gladly effect a peace between the belligerent powers, but he is careful to prevent us from regarding this as a consolatory idea:

'Faithful to her system of universal influence, and which the powers of that empire render a natural system to Russia, the court of Petersburgh must endeavour to maintain between Great Britain and France, an equipoise of power; or a constant rivalry. The consequence of that rivalry enables Russia to pursue her own projects unmolested; and it gives to the court of Petersburgh such an ascendancy in the politics of Europe, that you see the Russian ministry assume the part of dictatorial mediator upon every occasion which appears to that cabinet, as in anywise calculated to extend the influence or dominion of the Russian empire. Upon this principle, but it can only be on this principle, Russia may no doubt wish to bring about the re-establishment of peace before any blow shall be struck that can give a superiority to either of the belligerent parties. Should Alexander be able to arrange another peace upon the basis of that of Amiens, or, similar to his act de mediation at Ratisbon, the enormous establishments which Great Britain and France will be obliged to keep up, and the state of uncertainty, in which both nations will be left, must inevitably, sooner or latter, ruin the finances, and destroy the national industry, of both countries.'

The following extract will enable the reader to estimate the consideration in which we were lately held at Petersburgh:

'The influence of the British government at the court of Petersburgh has long been upon the decline. Your very inconsequent interference in favour of Sweden and Turkey during the last war between Russia and these powers, irritated the late empress and diminished her respect for the English nation.—The familiarity with which certain of your public men affected to treat Paul I, and the expedition to Holland, detached that prince from your interests, and made him your enemy.—After the battle of Copenhagen, a British minister, under the pretext of wishing to settle your differences with that court, but in reality to create a distrust and coolness between Denmark and Russia, and thereby dissever the northern league, induced the Danish secretary of state, Count Bernstorff, to come over in an extraordinary official capacity to London; this ill contrived artifice Alexander saw through, and he took the first opportunity that occurred to manifest his disapprobation of it; as Mr. Garlick and Lord St. Helen's can testify. These ministers had the mortification to see, upon all public occasions, a decided precedence expressly given by the emperor himself to Duroc, Bonaparte's aide-de-camp. I shall only notice here one particular circumstance which created much speculation, and not a little pleasantry, in the diplomatic circles at Petersburgh; viz, shortly after Lord St. Helen's arrival in that capital, his Lordship gave a grand dinner to his suite, and invited several Russian officers, on board of the Latona frigate which brought him out. On the day appointed,

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appointed by the British embassador, for his grand entertainment, as if to exhibit to the world a marked deference for the First Consul of the French republic, His Imperial Majesty ordered a martial fête to be given, and a flottilla of Russian gallies and gunboats to manœuvre for the Consul's messenger Duroc on the opposite side of Cronstadt haven, almost under the guns of the British frigate: As it is natural to be supposed, the principal Russian officers attended the emperor and Bonaparte's Prefect du Palais. It may be, that Alexander had on this occasion no particular design; allowing that to be the case, and that the emperor's fête was accidental, yet the singularity of the circumstance (with perhaps some other trifling matters) deprived his Lordship of that consideration which a British minister at the court of Russia ought always to enjoy. How far the brave mariner, whom you have since that time metamorphosed into an embassador, will be able to recover your influence in the speculative court of Petersburgh, a very little time will now determine.'

The author may be said to reprobate, in guarded terms, the blockade of the Elbe and Weser. It is, he says, of advantage to Prussia, as it favours the traffic along the Oder to the Baltic, while it adds a million to the expence of the transit of British goods; and it may induce the powers of the continent to devise expedients not very palatable in Great Britain, to prevent the trade of the North of Germany from being disturbed by the quarrels of England and France. He has no doubt that Denmark might have been persuaded to secure the neutrality of the Elbe.—We hope that the whole of this work will meet the eye of administration, and that this part of it will engage its serious consideration.

A very interesting and flattering sketch is given of the present state of Denmark. Its strength and force are represented as far more considerable than they are generally imagined to be; and very plausible reasons are assigned, to shew the eligibility of an alliance between that kingdom and Great Britain.

The subsequent passage, though it does not seem to have any immediate relation to the objects of the letter, is too curious to be passed over; and, as well as several others which we could point out, it proves its author to be no mean projector.

'There are in Europe four localities where grand navigable canals would be of universal benefit to the trade and industry of all nations, viz. between the Trave and the Elbe; from the river Po to the Mediterranean; between the Gulph of Lions and the Garonne; and from the North sea to the Irish channel. I mean canals on which ships of all sizes could navigate. To the construction of such works, all the states of Europe and America should contribute.'

In a letter on the present state of Austria, the writer observes to his correspondent:

'It is a notorious truth, that prior to the peace of Luneville the Austrian armies were exhausted; neither your embezzled subsidies, nor

* See a contradiction of the whole of this statement, in the Correspondence, Review for November 1804. p. 334. founded on the authority of Lord St Helens himself

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nor her own, perhaps on some occasions, ill-guided efforts, were sufficient to oppose the enemy; she therefore made peace. Not however like you, to husband her resources by diminishing her force: Austria made peace to obtain time to draw forth her resources and to re-organize her strength.

'To recruit her armies and recover her finances, the present war is a most propitious circumstance; it delivers the government of Austria from the menacing part of the intrigues of France; it disconcerts the plans of France and Russia, and renders the co-operation of their powers, were they inclined to co-operate, much less formidable. Under these circumstances, whatever the cabinet of Vienna may think proper to profess, it is the immediate interest of the emperor to endeavour, in as far as his influence will go, to protract the present contest until he shall be able to consolidate the rank and independence of the Austrian monarchy upon its own internal strength.'

After having given a picture of Europe, as newly modelled by the late wars and commotions, the author says:

'The cabinet of Vienna has maturely calculated the probable effects that may result from the present state of things; that government is convinced that, to maintain the integrity of the monarchy and the independence of the state, it is now become indispensably necessary to organize and keep up such a defensive force as may at all times be equal to the most virgorous offensive measures. To organize this force, and to provide for its permanent maintenance, is therefore now, as it ought to be, the principal concern of the Austrian government.

'At the peace of Luneville, Austria had on foot, and able to bear arms, only about 150,000 men; by the indefatigable exertions of the Arch-Duke Charles, although he has been but ill supported by a wretched system of finance, the Austrian army, at this moment, amounts to 400,000 effective men; the best troops and the best equipt of any in Europe. This army is raised upon a population of nearly 26 millions of people, the most patriotic, loyal, and brave, of perhaps any nation in the world *. With this force, and able to keep it up, Austria may still resume her long lost rank and political consequence in Europe. Her finances however require, that if she can, consistent with her honor and safety, she should yet for some time maintain her neutrality; and which she will in all likelihood endeavour to do—except she be vexed and insulted by France, or encouraged and properly guarantied by Great Britain and Russia.'

'* In the hereditary dominions of the House of Austria, a great proportion of the peasantry are in feodal vassalage: at this moment the Arch-Duke Charles has it in contemplation to offer these men civil liberty, and the right of citizens on condition, that, in case the state shall have occasion to require it, their young men shall enrol themselves for six years military service. Should the Duke, in spite of the pride, ostentation, and bigotry of the land proprietors, be able to carry this proposed measure into effect; he may in the course of three months after the publication of the ordinance, command a million of such volunteers as would soon manage Bonaparte's conscripts and veterans, were the Consul with his Guides at their head.'

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'To raise the Austrian monarchy to its natural standard has, I believe, ever been the leading motive by which the Arch-Duke's conduct has been guided: he fought like a hero as long as he believed that he was thereby serving the state; but when he saw that to continue the war was to endanger the future independence of his country, he advised to make peace. Whenever the Duke shall see his sovereign in a state to avenge his country's wrongs, he will, you may depend upon it, advise him to do so. In the mean time, it is much to be wished, that an alliance, formed upon liberal principles of national interests and reciprocal advantage, could be brought about between the Austrian and British monarchies. The phrase natural ally, like that of natural enemy, has in itself neither sense nor any sort of meaning; all communities of men are naturally allies: but, in as far as the security and political independence of a state constitute the leading interest of the nation, the Austrian and British monarchies are upon that principle politically allies.

'Since Spain and Holland were, as we may now fairly consider them to be, both completely subjugated, or become dependent on the government of France, if the British nation have an interest, either political or commercial, in the destiny of Europe and Asia, that interest should, by every rule of political combination, be supported by the powers and perfect independency of the Austrian monarchy: were it not for the intervenient power of Austria, Russia and France could, to-morrow or next day, divide the continental part of our Eastern hemisphere between them. The power of Austria, if, however left to itself alone, may be compelled to bend; it may even be crushed between those swelling empires; but in alliance with Great Britain, and loyally supported by your marine, no power nor combination of power could ever be in any wise formidable to the one or to the other. That the dissolution of the Turkish government in Europe must very soon take place, is, I presume evident to every impartial man of common knowledge. Such an event is perhaps desirable; and it might be highly beneficial to Europe in general; but the partition of the Turkish dominions, and to whom the several lots may fall, must be to Great Britain and Austria considerations of the very highest importance. Should the Dardanelles and Bosphorus fall under the dominion of either France or Russia; or should these two powers be allowed to join hands in the demarcation line between Europe and Asia, the consequences cannot be foreseen. To prevent the evils that must otherwise arise out of the partition treaty now contriving between the cabinets of Petersburgh and St. Cloud, and by which the king of Hungary is allowed a share, the most effectual measure would be a close connection and cordial alliance between Great Britain and Austria. Supported by Great Britain with vigor and in good faith, Austria would very soon, or before any of her neighbours were in a state to quarrel with her, be able to cover most effectually the land frontiers of European Turkey; and if you retain the island of Malta, your navy may as effectually cover the water frontiers of that empire.'

'An alliance between Great Britain and Austria would destroy the prospect of the consul being able to divide Turkey, and might arrest his progress in other quarters; Bonaparte's usurpations would then be

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be at an end; and peace and security might be re-established in Europe.

'Thus, Sir, I have pointed out to you two allies, Denmark and Austria. With the efficacious support and steady friendship of Great Britain, the one, whatever you may think of it, might always maintain the freedom of the Baltic and peace in the North; and the other could preserve the independence of the Dardanelles, and prevent for ever, the co operation of the powers of France and Russia, the only combination of power the world has to dread. Do not however, I beg of you, believe that I am such a novice as to presume, that your leading politicians will ever see the state of Europe in the same light that I now represent it.'

In the present, as in his former tracts, the author recommends to us a more *active* hostility than we now display: but why does he not lay the scene of it, and state the object at which we should aim? We must all be sensible of the advantages of offensive operations, but the field in which they can be executed does not present itself to our view. It is consolatory to learn that the war, the pressure of which we so much feel, raises a barrier against the power of France by assisting Austria to regain her former ascendancy. The communications of this intelligent writer warrant the conclusion that the fate of Europe, though placed in imminent hazard, is not yet hopeless; while they also shew that there never was a period which required so much integrity, ability, and firmness, in the persons to whose management the interests of states are intrusted.

The writer contrives to make very humorous and sarcastic attacks on some of our national failings and political errors, under the cover of certain pretended extracts from a memorial said to be delivered to Bonaparte, containing a plan for the destruction of Britain by means of peace, and a treaty of commerce favourable to the views and wishes of its inhabitants. This *jeu d'esprit*, which pleasantly submits very grave matter to our consideration, thus concludes;

"Permit me to remark to you, citizen Consul, that the dismissal of Marlborough, Godolphin and their colleagues in 1710, sunk the power and influence of England from the dictatorship of Europe to their natural level, and enabled Louis XIV. to raise the pretensions of France to where you have extended her dominion: when another set of daring men at the head of this government again threatened the political balance and commercial liberties of Europe, the resignation of Chatham in 1761 saved the French and Spanish empires abroad, and laid the preliminaries to the independence of America. The king has lately dismissed an arrogant but able minister, and has thereby disarmed the most formidable enemy of the French government—do not citizen C—— neglect this propitious juncture; it may be of short duration; these imperious people will not long be

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be led by the pacific docility of their present rulers, and any change must be detrimental to the interests of the republic."

On what follows, we shall only observe that we pray that it may be correct:

'I have mentioned to you on former occasions, that notwithstanding the scurrility with which your English writers speak of the politics of the legitimate sovereigns of the continent, they are really honest and honourable men; you accuse them of timidity and of a connivance with Bonaparte! Sir, believe me the people of England are ill informed. I will not speak of Spain and Italy——but from a knowledge of facts I can assure you, that there is not another sovereign prince in Europe but who considers the present government of France as the heaviest malediction that ever overtook civil society. They are, *every one*, convinced that the dominion of that licentious nation must be circumscribed, or that Europe will be over-run by its marauding armies: these sovereigns are therefore, upon principles of self-preservation, the irreconcileable enemies of Bonaparte's usurpation; and they,—that is, those who have the means, are really at this moment adopting measures to bring about its destruction. The three leading powers are, you may rely upon it as a fact, now resolved, in accord with one another, to raise their military force to such a standard, as shall not only secure their own independence, but likewise restore *in time* the political existence of other states. That Russia, Austria, and Prussia have been too long in coming to a frank explanation with one another on this subject, is to be regretted: for, as I said to you in a former letter, were the consul less occupied about getting upon a *mushroom throne*, he might certainly embarrass their measures before they could singly, or united oppose his operations; but to defeat the ultimate success of their plan is impossible. Bonaparte knows that those sovereigns as well as every honest man are the enemies of his government, and that they are determined to circumscribe its dominion. He knows that the Austrian regular army amounts to 400,000 brave men in a high state of discipline; that Prussia can muster nearly 300,000 soldiers commanded by the most intelligent officers in Europe, and that Russia can in a little time organize an army of almost any number of men. Thus circumstanced, can it be presumed that the consul, presumptuous as you say he is, should export 200,000 of his best troops? The hero of Marengo could not pretend to undertake the conquest of England with a smaller number. Suppose the Gallic emperor had nothing to apprehend from his continental neighbours, by whom is his expedition to England to be conducted? Should he put himself at the head of the army, to whom could he intrust the *mantle* and *crown* in his absence? He knows that once landed in England, those who are now his warmest friends in France would instantaneously offer to the British government peace upon any terms, if you engaged to keep him there, or to send him to Botany-Bay: rather than take Bonaparte back, the French would consent to evacuate Holland, Brabant and Italy; and they would give *Corsica* to the Day of Algiers. This, Sir! is not *plaisanterie*; you may believe me it is a serious fact. Should he give the command of the Expedition

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to any one of his generals—that would be to reinforce his enemies with his own strength—or suppose, what is not very likely, that his *Aide de Camp* succeeded, would *le vainqueur de l'Angleterre* ever again receive a *parole d'ordre* from a *Bonaparte ?*'

Our political instructor is of opinion that the present unparalleled sway of Bonaparte will be of no long duration. He seems to think that *we* shall not make a great difficulty of acknowledging his new dignity, but he relies on it that Austria will not so far degrade herself. The fact turns out to be the reverse, and shews how dangerous it is to deal in political prophesies; while it shakes our confidence in other predictions of the author, none of which are delivered with more assurance than the one in question.

'Were Mr. Pitt (he tells us) to come into the cabinet to morrow, and next day to declare or cause to be proclaimed publicly to the world, that his majesty was determined to destroy the Napoleon government, and to enable the French nation to organize a rational and legal government for themselves, and that no propositions of peace should be received until that was accomplished—I am certain that half the French army would leave Bonaparte's standard in 8 days; and the whole army would leave him in less than 3 weeks. But secret intrigues inspire mistrust, and will never make these people act, except it be against the authors of such intrigues.'

We fear that the latter prediction is no better founded than that which precedes it.—The author takes frequent opportunities of extolling Mr. Pitt as a statesman. Without attempting to give judgment on this contested point, we shall content ourselves with observing that, in all his attempts to humble France, and to check its aggrandizement, he has been completely foiled; and that he has studiously and uniformly avoided doing what the author so much recommends, namely, stating to the country the object of the struggles in which it has been embarked.—Notwithstanding some questionable opinions, and hazardous predictions, which the work before us contains, we are very certain that the extracts which we have made from it, and the character of the author's former tracts, will secure for it due attention on the part of the public. Did it stand in need of farther recommendations from us, we should most certainly bestow them, and deem them well conferred. The residence of this Gentleman abroad gives him vast advantages, and qualifies him for offering useful instructions to his countrymen; if indeed he be an Englishman, which we sometimes doubt.

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ART. XI. *Mr.* Leslie's *Inquiry into the Nature and Propagation of Heat.*

[*Article concluded from p.* 93.]

THE principles and laws of the cooling of bodies in elastic fluids being stated, Mr. Leslie next investigates the same phænomena in non elastic fluids; and the fluid which is the subject of his experiments is water. A hot body placed in water is cooled chiefly, according to Mr. L., by two only of the refrigerating causes which act in an elastic medium: a portion of the heat is uniformly absorbed by the surrounding water, and conducted through the internal mass, in the same manner as if it were congealed into solid ice; and the remaining portion is discharged by the slow recession of the heated particles. In water, however, the law of this second refrigerating cause will not be the same as in air, in which it varies simply as the excess of temperature; and the proof that the law is not the same is derived from experiment. Thus, suppose a ball containing hot water, and furnished with a thermometer, to be immersed in a water-bath, and the temperature of the bath to be in three experiments 0, 30°, 60°, and the corresponding temperatures of the immersed ball, 20°, 50°, 80°: then in the first experiment the thermometer sinks 10 degrees in 6 minutes; in the 2d, 10 degrees in $3\frac{1}{4}$ minutes; and in the 3d, 10 degrees in 2 minutes:—but in air the expression for the time being $t = b.\left\{\log.\frac{a+b}{a+H} - \log.\frac{b}{H}\right\}$ must evidently be the same, since b and H are the same whether they = 10—0, and 20—0, or = 40—30 and 50—30, or = 70—60 and 80—60. The author attributes this increase in the rate of cooling to a property peculiar to water, namely that of expanding with a rapid acceleration on receiving equal accessions of heat. If e be the dilatation, and b the temperature, then $de \propto b.db$, consequently $e \propto b^2$, reckoning the commencement of expansion from the point of congelation; and here Mr. L. takes occasion to controvert an idea which has recently been announced as a curious and remarkable fact, that the minimum of the expansion of water takes place, not at the point of congelation, but a few degrees above that point. On a subject of such interest, we quote the author's own words:

'I have referred the commencement of expansion in water to the point of congelation. But it now seems generally supposed that water is contracted into the smallest volume about five or six degrees above zero, and, in its descent beyond this stationary limit, again undergoes a slight dilatation. I am disposed, however, to question the accuracy of a principle so discordant and anomalous. In fact the ex-

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periments on which it is grounded, though somewhat varied in their plan, never give the true expansions of water, but only the differences between those expansions and the corresponding expansions of glass. Having filled a thin glass ball, terminating in a fine tubular stem, with distilled water, and cooled the whole down to the point of congelation, I plunged it into a large bath, whose temperature was four or five degrees above zero. The water in the stem sunk at first considerably, owing evidently to the dilatation of the glass, and, by consequence, the enlarged capacity of the ball; but it then rose a sensible space, which must be ascribed to the expansion of the water itself. In like manner, when the procedure is reversed, and the ball, heated up a few degrees, is plunged into a bath at the point of congelation, the water rises in the stem as the ball contracts, and then, by its own contraction, partially subsides. The dilatation of glass by heat is indeed so very small, that in most cases it may be safely disregarded. But the rate with which water contracts is perpetually diminishing as the heat declines, and therefore, at some particular point, this effect is exactly counteracted by the opposite contraction of the glass, and beyond it the latter must predominate. Nor is it difficult to determine, at least theoretically, the position of the *minimum*, or limit of apparent condensation. Water expands about the 24th part of its bulk between freezing and boiling; and glass, in the same interval, expands longitudinally the 8200dth part, and consequently its dilatation, in all the three dimensions, must amount to the 4oodth part of its whole volume. The expansion of water that corresponds to any temperature x is therefore denoted by $\frac{1}{24}\left(\frac{x}{100}\right)^2$, and that of glass by $\frac{x}{40,000}$. Equating these two expressions, we obtain $\frac{x^2}{24}=\frac{x}{4}$, and therefore $x=6°$. This remarkable coincidence seems to dispel every shadow of doubt, and we may embrace it as an established fact, that the successive dilatations of water, counting from zero, are as the natural progression of numbers.'

This objection, against the principle of the minimum of the expansion of water being at a point above congelation, seems to us very weighty and formidable; and we hope that it will give rise to new experiments, in order that the fact may finally be determined.

If, then, the refrigerating cause, which arises from the recession of the heated particles, vary as the square of the temperature, let its effect at 100 be denoted by f; then at any other temperature (b) it $=f\left(\frac{b}{100}\right)^2$. Let $c=$ the conducting power of water; and since it appears by experiment that the rate of cooling is five times greater at the boiling than at the freezing point,

$$\therefore c+f.\frac{0^2}{100^2}=\frac{1}{5}\,c+f.\left(\frac{100}{100}\right)^2 \text{ and } f=4c.$$

Suppose

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Suppose $c = 1$ $\therefore f = 4$, and the sum of the two refrigerating causes at any temperature h, $= 1 + 4.\left(\frac{h}{100}\right)^2$ or $= 1 + \frac{h^2}{2500}$ when the water-bath is at the point of congelation: but, let the temperature of the water-bath be h', then the two refrigerating causes are 1 and $\frac{h^2 - h'^2}{2500}$. Let $2500 = a^2$, then $-dh = m\,(h - h')\left(1 + \frac{h^2 - h'^2}{a^2}\right) .dt$, m a constant co-efficient; consequently,

$$m.dt = -\frac{dh}{h-h'} + \frac{dh\,(h+h')}{a^2+h^2-h'^2} = \frac{-dh}{h-h'} + \frac{h.dh}{b^2+h^2} + \frac{h'dh}{b^2+h^2}\;(a^2 - h'^2 = b^2) \;\therefore mt = h.l.\frac{1}{h-h'} + \tfrac{1}{2}\,b.l\,(b^2+h^2) + \frac{h'}{b^2} \times \text{Arc (tang} = h \text{ and rad} = b) + \text{corr}^n.$$

$$\therefore mt = h.l\,\frac{H-h'}{h-h'} + h.l.\sqrt{\frac{b^2+h^2}{b^2+H^2}} + \frac{h'}{b^2} \times \text{difference of 2 Arcs, rad}^s = b, \text{ and tangents being } H, h.$$

When $h' = o$, or the water-bath is at the point of congelation,

$$\therefore mt = h.l.\frac{H}{h} + h.l.\sqrt{\frac{b^2+h^2}{b^2+H^2}}$$

$$\text{or} = \frac{1}{M}\left\{\log.\frac{H}{h} + \log.\sqrt{\frac{b^2+h^2}{b^2+H^2}}\right\}$$

Mr. L. puts for $\frac{M}{m}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, but we do not perceive his method of determining that co-efficient; which he ought to have explained.

It appears to us that the foregoing solution depends on the supposition of h', the temperature of the water-bath, remaining constant; which will not be the case, except the bath, comparatively with the immerged ball, be very small:—the solution in that case will demand modification, and become more difficult.

Mr. Leslie has not verified these theoretical deductions by actual experiment; and we are surprized at his neglect, in this instance. We suspect that a very near coincidence of theoretical and experimental results will not be manifested, when the times of cooling bodies in water are observed: for it seems to us that the agency of refrigeration, produced by the continual ascent of the heated particles, is greater than the author seems willing to allow. He indeed admits this agency, and, in discussing it, notices several curious phænomena which can only be explained by the very imperfect conducting power of fluids; and here is the difference between Count Rumford and Mr.

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Leslie: the former asserting that fluids are totally destitute of a conducting power, while the latter maintains that their conducting power is very small. The difference is material, then, since it involves a question not merely about *degree*.

We have mentioned the name of Count Rumford; and it was our intention to have noticed and commented on the remarkable coincidence between the inquiries, with respect to their object, conduct, and result, of that gentleman and of the present author: but we find ourselves obliged to refrain. We only observe that, among other points of resemblance, the similarity of the two instruments, (the *thermoscope* and the *differential thermometer*,)—and the identity of the curious result that, although repeated folds of linen or flannel retard the cooling of a metal body, yet one fold may accelerate it,—suffice to convince any person, not determined to call in the aid of a miracle, of a connection between one of these writers with the experiments and discoveries of the other; and it is a duty incumbent on him, to whom the right of originality belongs, to step forwards and assert it.

In the 18th chapter, the author applies his theory to discover the diminution in the rate of cooling, produced by surrounding the heated body with concentric *septa*. Suppose a series of hollow cylindrical vessels, made of very thin brass, to be so constructed as to fit the one into the other like a nest of boxes, and to be kept separate from each other by resting on the protuberant parts of a chequered ring: let a, b, c, &c. be the diameters of the cylinders, h, h', h'', &c. the temperatures of their sides, H, H', H'', &c. the temperatures of the included portions of air; then, rejecting the pulsatory communication of heat, (which, in the case of a series of cylindrical vessels, would be exceedingly attenuated,) we have these similar equations:

$$H = \frac{ba^2 + b'b^2}{a^2 + b^2} \qquad H = 2b' - H' = 2b' - 2b'' + 2b'''$$

$$H' = \frac{b'b^2 + b'c^2}{b^2 + c^2} \qquad H' = 2b'' - H'' = 2b'' - 2b'''$$

$$H'' = \frac{b''c^2 + b'''d^2}{c^2 + d^2} \qquad H'' = 2b'''$$

&c.

and hence, by elimination, b'''' may be determined in terms of a, b, c, &c. and of b.

Suppose, for instance, that there are two cases, a being the diameter of the vessel that contains the heated fluid: then

$$b'' = \frac{a^2 b \cdot b}{b^2 c^2 + 2a^2 c^2 + 2a^2 b^2}$$

and

and consequently $\frac{b''.c^2}{b.a^2} = \frac{b^2c^2}{b^2c^2+2a^2c^2+2a^2b^2} =$

$\frac{b^2}{b^2+2a^2+2a^2.\frac{b^2}{c^2}}$ expresses the diminished rate of cooling.

Suppose a, b, c, nearly equal; and experiment shews that the diminution in the rate of cooling, (which beyond a certain limit, is a very inconsiderable quantity) is not affected by the thickness of the confined portions of air: then the diminished rate is expressed by $\frac{1}{5}$; and if an additional case be added, by $\frac{1}{7}$, &c.

The author next considers the case in which the concentric cylinders are vitreous:—but it is time for us to check our progress.—We must not, however, pass over in silence the photometer, or an instrument for measuring the intensity of light; which, in the principle of its construction, resembles the *differential thermometer* and *hygrometer* constructed by Mr. Leslie Two tubes, into which sulphuric acid tinged with carmine is introduced, are joined together by means of a blow-pipe, and made to stand parallel to each other, the interval between them being occupied by a graduated scale: the ends of the tubes are closed by two hollow glass balls, one transparent, the other blackened: when the instrument is exposed to the action of light, the blackened ball absorbs light, and, according to the author, a proportional quantity of heat; or, by varying the expression of the fact, a proportional quantity of heat is excited, which produces a dilatation in the air contained in the blackened ball, and causes the coloured liquor to rise in the tube terminated by the transparent ball, which, absorbing no light, receives no accession of heat. The instrument, no doubt, is uncommonly ingenious; and subsequent experiments and researches may prove the exactness of its principle: but, at present, it appears to us to rest on this supposition, that light and heat are the same fluid, or, in the words of the author, only different states of the same identical substance. What is it, of which the ascent of the coloured liquor is a token and indication? Increased elasticity of the air contained in the black ball. The cause of that increased elasticity, from analogy, we infer to be heat; and of that heat, no doubt, light is the *cause*, since the two balls differ only in this, that the one absorbs light and the other does not: but, although, in a certain sense, light may be said to be the *cause*, yet, how do we know that the accession of heat is in exact proportion to the absorption of light? The instrument exposed to the action of light shews, by the rise of its coloured liquor, an accession of heat (b): now let the heat indicated be $2b$; is it a strict inference that the light is

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doubled? No, except we admit the principle that light excites heat exactly in proportion to its own quantity: or that heat is only light under a latent form, in consequence of detention and absorption.

These are objections which, in the present state of facts and theory, are proper and reasonable; but we wish that they may be removed: for if we are permitted to have *belief* in these cases, we believe that trial and research will establish the accuracy of the instrument.

Mr. L. surrounds the photometer with a glass case, in order to prevent the dissipation of heat; and he argues, with his customary acuteness, that the instrument, thus *cased*, will indicate truly the absorption of light, since the expenditure of heat, caused by the process of refrigeration, varies as the excess of temperature between the heated body and the surrounding air.

The application of the photometer is very various and curious: it announces some results which are contrary to common belief, and others which are contrary to received opinion. The author dislikes the distribution of the prismatic light into seven colours, and throws considerable doubts on the reality of the distinction of *calorific* and *colorific* rays.—As his investigations are so much implicated with those of Count Rumford and Dr. Herschell, we anticipate a controversy, in which we think Philosophy will be a gainer.

As our limits are already transgressed, we must refer the inquisitive and philosophic reader to the volume itself for farther gratification; and he will find it a work which is not produced every day, nor by an intellect of an ordinary size. Some of its discussions are rather intricate, and the author's mathematical mode of arguing throws over it an air of abstruseness *: but the general scope of the reasoning, the experiments, and the results of the inquiries, are not above the capacity of common understandings. Of these experiments and results, the most curious and original undoubtedly are those which relate to the difference of power, possessed by various substances, in emitting heat that can be reflected and again concentrated; that is, according to Mr. L.'s hypothesis of emitting heat by pulsation. Hence his theory chiefly derives its eminence and character; and, among the causes on which the process of refrigeration depends, the *pulsatory* is most clearly ascertained.

* Mr. Leslie uses the differential notation, and gives his reasons for adopting it. Our opinion on this head is already known. See account of La Croix on the Differential Calculus, Rev. Vols. xxxi. and xxxii.

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Concerning the other causes of refrigeration, we have stated our doubts of the accuracy with which they are distinguished, their laws propounded, and their value assigned: something remains to be elucidated respecting the expression $(a+b)$ of the combined action of three of the causes, in terms of the temperature and of constant quantities; and with regard to the meaning of *intensity of impression*, which refers (we imagine) to the fourth cause: remove the calculation, and it seems to us that the author attributes too great an effect to *abduction*, and too little to the refrigeration produced by the continual ascent of heated particles. Still, however, in this very intricate analysis, we admire the great skill with which the experiments are varied, and the separate actions of the *cooling* causes evolved. Our objections we purpose not to defend as if they were property or prejudices: they may originate either from misconception on our part, or from the omission of necessary explanation, or from real error: be this as it may, we should be happy to see them removed, not averse, with information more ample or more correct, to re-enter on the present train of thought and investigation.—With respect to arrangement and construction, the author has not done ample justice to his theory; which he should have exhibited more summarily, and with greater closeness of connection; and he should not have interrupted the process of reasoning, by so many separate discussions.

In reviewing such a production as the present, we shall not insist on some little inaccuracies of style which have occurred to us *; and particularly as, generally speaking, the composition

* A note will contain a few errata which we have detected,

In note 10, we find $\frac{\pi x^2}{a^2+x^2}$ for $\frac{\pi a^2}{a^2+x^2}$.

P. 73. *Inverse ratio of the distance*, for *inverse ratio of the square of the distance.*

P. 282. v made to denote velocity instead of additional velocity.

P. 543. $\frac{1}{2}v^2 \times gn = \frac{a^2}{2a}$, for $\frac{v^2}{2} = gn.\frac{a^1}{2a}$.

P. 324. Log. $\frac{b}{a+b}$, for log. $\frac{a+b}{b}$; and in the note to the same part, $\frac{log.\ H}{log.\ b}$ — log. $\frac{a+H}{log.\ a+b}$ is put for, log. $\frac{H}{b}$ — log. $\frac{a+H}{a+b}$.

P. 328. In value of dt, for a surface of paper, $\frac{db}{b}$ is omitted.

P. 350. 1250 for 2500.

P. 351. In the 2d expression for time, the minus sign is omitted, and b put for b'.—In the note, — sign is omitted before $H.\log.\ b-b'$.

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is much superior to that of most scientific details. Nor were we violently displeased on occasionally meeting with a tone rather too arrogant, and an inference too precipitate; because we applaud the freedom, the fearlessness, and the activity of the author's mind. Unfettered by system, and unawed by authority, he always thinks for himself; and of his opinions, many are novel, and all are interesting. As a whole and a system, his work claims attention; and the discussions, whether adjunctive or subsidiary, in the notes or the text, are profound and original. In the dark and tortuous passages of his theory, although experience is his sure and constant guide, yet Geometry holds her torch, and illumines the way.

RW.

ART. XII. *A Brief Inquiry into the present Condition of the Navy of Great Britain*, and its Resources: followed by some Suggestions, calculated to remedy the Evils, the Existence of which is made apparent in the course of the Investigation. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Highley.

ART. XIII. *A Reply to a Pamphlet intitled*, "*A Brief Inquiry*," &c. &c. Wherein is clearly demonstrated the Force of the Enemy, and what was opposed to it by the late Board of Admiralty; as well as the actual Strength possessed by the King's Dock Yards, and their Ability to keep up and increase the Navy, without the aid of Merchant Builders. 8vo. 1s. Ginger.

ART. XIV. *Audi alteram Partem: or the real Situation of the Navy of Great Britain at the Period of Lord St. Vincent's Resignation*; being a Reply to the Mis-statements of "An Answer to Mr. Pitt's Attack upon Earl St. Vincent and the Admiralty *:" also containing the Substance of a suppressed Pamphlet on the same Subject. By an Officer of His Majesty's Navy. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Budd.

WE cannot suppress our opinion that this controversy claims very serious attention from those who take an active part in our national councils; and we recommend to their dispassionate and studious perusal the tracts which it has called forth, as well as the several reports of the Commissioners of Naval Inquiry. Judging from the view which we have been able to take of the subject, we cannot pronounce that the economical plans of the late first Lord of the Admiralty were pernicious, impracticable, absurd, and puerile; they may have been commenced at an unlucky moment, may have been too much precipitated, in some instances may have been harshly executed, and the opposition to them, with its effects, may not have been sufficiently calcu-

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* See Review for July last, p. 315.

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lated: but, on the other hand, all the discussion which they have undergone only serves to strengthen our conviction, that they originated in genuine patriotism, and honourable zeal for the service; that they were the result of experience sanctioned by wisdom, and intimately interwoven with the ultimate prosperity and dearest interests of the country. Though the noble projector of them no longer superintends them himself, it appears to us to require the most grave deliberation of Parliament, to determine whether the labour bestowed on them is to be thrown away. We have not to learn from the virulent pamphlets before us, from these advocates of expence, from these panegyrists of profusion, that reforms never proceed smoothly; that the tongue of calumny is busy in traducing the promoters of them; and that those, who were pampered by the fruits of the impositions lately exposed, are active in obstructing the benefits of investigation. That anonymous writers should broadly profess enmity to economy is not matter of surprize: but when they state it as a solemn accusation, that on the late board of Admiralty announcing an intended visit to one of the divisions of marines, "it had the effect of producing in the case of one individual apoplexy, and in another mental derangement," this avowed sympathy with persons who betray a consciousness of extreme guilt is indeed somewhat strange. If these apologists pleaded the cause of extravagance as respecting our brave defenders, who shed their blood to protect us, we should attentively and respectfully listen to them: but when it applies to persons who have no more to do with warfare than the artisans who cast our artillery, or the taylors who make our uniforms, we are at a loss to guess what is in their case, that rendered it so criminal in the late board of Admiralty to endeavour to confine them to their fair and honest earnings! When we reflect on the extravagance of some of the charges preferred against the Board, on the flimsiness of others, and on the satisfactory manner in which the rest are by its advocates refuted, we cannot help conjecturing that it was the weakness of other departments of administration that occasioned its fall, rather than its own demerits.

It is asserted, in one of these pamphlets, that 10,000 seamen from the port of London alone, at the epoch of the peace, went over to the enemy; that our shipwrights have acted the same part, and been well received; that the late Admiralty sold a quantity of hemp from the King's stores, and that it found its way to the consular repositories at Brest; that certain ships have been lost; that privateers have contrived to escape in some instances the vigilance of our cruizers, to slip out to sea, and to commit depredations on our trade; and that

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that the small craft of the enemy has been able, under the protection of the batteries on shore, to assemble at the places of their rendezvous. These severally form weighty charges in the accusing pages.

One of the accusers of the dismissed board impeaches the blockading system itself. It may be observed that not the board, but the cabinet, is answerable for that measure: but, as the plan has both been adopted and professedly extended by the present regulators of our naval affairs, we must conclude that the accuser preferred this charge without instruction from his patrons.

The enemies of Lord St. Vincent join with him in representing the extreme inactivity prevalent in the King's dock-yards; and they do not controvert the facts on which the conclusion is founded, that the hands employed and the expenditure made in the several arsenals would, under the same management with that which is exerted in the Merchant-yards, be more than adequate to construct and keep in repair the whole Navy of England. What, then, renders it an offence in the noble Earl to attempt to make them efficient? What claims have these establishments to be made sinecures? Why are two-thirds of the Navy of England to issue out of the private yards, in order that the artisans in those of the King may live in indolence? The letter of Mr. Wells, who is a private builder, subjoined to the last of the above pamphlets, is in every way creditable to the writer, and impresses the reader strongly in his favour: but it contains no accusation against the late First Lord, nor do we see how it can be construed to his disadvantage. The merit of the private yards is not the question; the matter in dispute is the destination of the royal yards, how far they fulfil it, and the expediency of removing the abuses and defects with which they are chargeable. On this subject, let us attend to what is said by the author of the Reply:

'From the foregoing statement, it appears that 5329 Shipwrights and Caulkers (exclusive of apprentices) *in the Merchants' yards*, cannot only keep in repair nearly TWO MILLIONS OF TONS of shipping (which are in *constant wear*, and not lying in the harbours, as one third of the Royal Navy has and ever will), and build upwards of 100,000 tons per year, but also add one half to the list of the Navy; whilst 2870 Shipwrights and Caulkers in the King's yards have not kept in repair *five hundred and twenty three thousand two hundred and thirty one* tons, and have built only 29 sail of the line in 24 years. Moreover, let it be remembered, as *a well authenticated fact*, that 46 Shipwrights can, without any extraordinary exertion, *build* a 74 *gun ship in twelve months!* to which need only be added what has been stated by Mr. Wells, "that in the year 1795 he launched from *his yard* 8000 tons of shipping *more than any three* of his Majesty's yards together launched in

in the same period." I find that Mr. Wells has, at this time in his yard, 14 Shipwrights (apprentices included), which is 17 more than can be found in the employ of any other Merchant-builder in the kingdom. What conclusion then, let me ask, must be drawn with respect to the mode of working of the men in the King's yards, and *what they ought to perform*, when it is known that three of the King's yards averaged, during the whole of the year 1795, TWO THOUSAND FIVE HUNDRED AND THIRTY Shipwrights, apprentices included. *When these facts are known*, will they not create equal astonishment and indignation at the assertions which are so industriously circulated, that without the aid of the Merchant-builders the Navy cannot be kept up? Is it not manifest that *the present deplorable system* is ruinous to the country, and calculated to keep us for ever dependent on the Merchant builders, who (meaning those who have hitherto built ships of the line and frigates) do not possess *one-third* of the strength or ability to be found in the King's yards? And does not that man deserve the highest praise and honours which a grateful country can bestow, who, equally regardless of the odium attached to reform, as the clamour of the interested, has devoted his time to correct this most alarming evil, and not hesitated to bare his breast to the venomed shafts of the most virulent calumny, in order to excite a spirit of energy in our dock yards; and by tearing off the fetters from the good and industrious workmen, encourage them to exertions which cannot fail to place the Navy independent of the Merchant-builders?'

He farther adds:

'Notwithstanding the asserted challenge of Messrs. Wells, Barnard, and Brent, I am one of those who do not believe that ships built by contract are, in general, by any means so well put together as those built in the King's yards. My opinion is formed on the many instances that have appeared to the contrary; and I will mention one, because it came *a-propos* to Mr. Pitt's discussion in their favour. A day or two after the propriety of depending on the Merchant-builders for the supply of ships of the line for the Navy had been strenuously urged both within the House and out of doors, *a letter was received at the Admiralty* from the captain of a ship of the line, built by contract not eight years since in the River Thames, *accompanied by five fore and aft bolts of the iron knees* (OR RATHER POINTS OF BOLTS) which, with several others, had worked out of the ship *during her last cruize only*, each of which should have been 20 inches long and clenched; instead of which, however, two were only 4½ inches long, tapered to the points like wedges, and the other three from 7 to 11! I believe I may defy all the Merchant builders in the kingdom to produce one solitary instance of a single bolt of this description ever having worked out, or made its appearance, on board *any ship built in a King's yard*. In defence of these circumstances, it is urged, that the ship, when building, is under the inspection of a resident Overseer, whose duty it is to see that all the materials are good, and the work well executed. It is true, a person of that description is appointed by the Navy Board, and the Merchant-builder cannot obtain his bills, during the progress of the work, until the Overseer has certified that it has

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been properly performed, and with good materials. Without dwelling much on the practice which, it is said, has prevailed of making regular presents to the Overseer, at the payment of the several bills to which he has certified, and at the launching of the ship, how, let me ask the Merchant-builders, can they in their conscience throw the responsibility of insufficient or improper work on an Overseer, who perhaps has half a dozen ships to attend to at the same time, besides having to send the Navy Board a weekly statement of all the works performed?'

On behalf of the late Board, it is observed by the same writer:

'That the *most exaggerated* accounts which have been received of the enemy's preparations, state them to consist of 48 sail of the line, 37 frigates, 22 corvettes, 4 praames (or sloops of war), 120 gun-brigs of the first class, carrying each 6 guns, and 2115 gun-boats, schuyts, and boats and vessels of every sort or description; to oppose which there were, on the day the late Admiralty retired, 88 sail of the line, 15 fifties, 125 frigates, 92 sloops, 18 bombs, 40 gun-brigs of 12 guns each, 6 gun-boats, 82 cutters and schooners, 41 armed ships, and 997 boats armed with guns, on the coast, besides 5 sail of the line, 1 fifty, 4 frigates, and 3 sloops, which will be ready to commission in the month of June. This statement includes, as well the enemy's as our own force in every part of the world; but as the general attention of the country has been directed to the threatened invasion, I shall state the force which the enemy *is said to have prepared* for that purpose, and also that which the late Board of Admiralty *had allotted* to oppose it. From the Texel to Havre de-Grace the enemy's preparations are said to consist of 5 sail of the line, 6 frigates, 6 corvettes, 4 praames, 120 gun-brigs of 6 guns, and 2115 gun-boats, schuyts, and other boats and vessels; to oppose which there were, under the command of Lord Keith and Sir James Saumarez, 21 sail of the line, 7 fifties, 36 frigates, 30 sloops, 12 bombs, 29 gun-brigs of 12 guns each, 41 cutters and schooners, and 19 armed ships, independent of 925 boats and craft armed with guns, on the Coast, in the Channel, and in the rivers Thames and Medway.'

From the best attention which we have been able to pay to this controversy, it appears to us that the charges advanced against the late Board of Admiralty were in a great degree groundless; and that the clamour against it was principally raised and sustained by those whose delinquencies and corrupt conduct it had exposed.

Jo.

MONTHLY

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MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For OCTOBER, 1804.

POLITICS.

Art. 15. *An Answer to Lord Sheffield's Pamphlet on the Subject of the Navigation-System;* proving that the Acts deviating therefrom, which his Lordship censures, were beneficial to our Trade and Navy in the last War, and ought to be renewed in the present. By S. Cock, Commercial and Public Agent to the Corporation of Liverpool. 8 o pp. 74. 2s 6d. Richardson. 1804.

In the notice which we took of Lord Sheffield's pamphlet, in our Number for June last, we expressed our opinion that some of the observations and facts contained in it merited discussion; and this they have received in the pages before us, from a very intelligent, able, and perspicuous writer. Mr. Cock has fully satisfied us that the alarm raised by the noble author was without foundation, and that all his apprehensions were groundless. The navigation act has been considered as a measure in no respect unworthy of the vigorous and comprehensive mind of the bold ruler with whom it originated: it was re-enacted on the restoration; our naval power and prosperity commenced and grew up with it; and we regarded it therefore as proper to concede to the noble Lord, that a regulation, so circumstanced, was not lightly to be abrogated. On the other hand, the assent, which we have ever given to the principles of the school of Dr. Adam Smith, would not allow of our being superstitious adherents to the statute which was so much the object of Lord Sheffield's veneration.

The design of the navigation act, says Mr. Cock, was the prosperity of our trade, and the increase of our seamen; and if the late enactments do not interfere with those purposes, the advocate of that antient law has no right to complain of them, though they may in certain circumstances supersede or confine its operation. He shews that the effect of the acts censured by the noble Lord has been to increase very considerably the quantum of our imports and exports, to call forth a great sum of additional productive labour, and consequently to increase the mass of our wealth; while they placed a greater number of our mariners at the disposal of Government, and thus materially contributed to our naval superiority. In this manner, he says, have operated those acts of the Legislature, which have dispensed with the restraints imposed by the laws of Cromwell and of Charles II., and which have allowed the use of neutral bottoms. Under the influence of the same measures, our commerce and our shipping obtained a rapid, regular, and successive increase. Not only were we able to enrich ourselves by disposing of such commodities as we had to spare, and to serve our convenience by procuring such as we wanted, but commercial men derived the important advantage of preserving their customers in the hostile countries, and of preventing the trade from changing hands.

Mr.

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Mr. Cock observes that, by the navigation-act, it was not necessary that a ship should be *British built*; it was only required that it should belong to the people of Great Britain, be navigated by a British commander, and by mariners, three-fourths of whom were British subjects: but, by Lord Liverpool's act, the vessel must be *British built*. The author gives no opinion on the policy of this restriction; and we regret that he has not, since he is possessed of that information and judgment which stamp value on whatever he advances. He says that by law a British ship taken by the enemy, if, after having been tried and condemned in his ports, it ever again comes to the hands of a British subject, by a sort of *jus postliminii* becomes entitled to British privileges, that is to registry; and this is the cause of most of our captured vessels finding their way back again. Mr. C. condemns this regulation, as being a premium on the capture of British vessels.

Lord S. complained that America was allowed to supply our West India islands with provisions. It is answered by Mr. C. that the planters are thus furnished at a much cheaper rate, than they could be if they drew their supplies from Great Britain; and that their activity and their wealth are thus increased, in which the mother-country, where they for the most part reside, has an interest. If, he farther observes, this trade increases the shipping of the United States, the augmentation takes place in a quarter of which we need be the least jealous.

In noticing the noble Lord's objections to permission given to the Americans to trade with India, the author remarks that, as the East India Company possess the command of all the articles which they deem expedient for their own trade, they cannot be injured by the traffic carried on by the United States in those commodities with which they do not chuse to deal. There is no reason why the Company should view this trade invidiously, since it enriches their Indian colonies: but why this traffic should be allowed to the subjects of a foreign state, to the exclusion of those of Great Britain, is a measure of which the good sense and sound judgment of Mr. C. lead him to decline the defence. If prejudice, authority, and antient usage may be pleaded by Lord Sheffield, the present author may reply in the words of an eminent judge of human transactions; * "*Comunque se sia io non giudicho, nè giu dichero, mai esser' difetto difendere alcuni opinioni con le ragioni senza volervi usare o l'autorità, o la forza.*" Jo.

Art. 16. *An Inquiry into the Causes of Popular Discontents in Ireland.* By an Irish Country Gentleman. 8vo. 2s. Wallis. 1804.

It appears to us that the whole Empire ought to be not less forward than Ireland, in calling on the authors of the Union to realize, in that country, the blessings which it was foretold would result from her adoption: but it was not to be expected that Mr. Addington should take a very active part in this most important business; since he, it

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"* However it be, I do not think, and never shall think, that it is wrong to defend opinions by reason, without having recourse to authority, or force."

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is supposed, came into power on the express condition of opposing the extension of toleration. We must, however, be allowed to observe that this gentleman, in the speech which he made in favour of the above measure, quoted with approbation, and in appearance adopted, the sentiment of Dr. Duigenan, that the Catholics might be emancipated in case the two legislatures were incorporated. The present Minister, who on the same occasion was more than usually lavish of promises, was lately, it is understood, re-admitted into office only on the condition of abandoning his engagements to the Catholics. The so much vaunted benefits of the Union, therefore, have hitherto amounted solely to a great accession of influence to the existing Minister, in transacting the affairs as well of Great Britain as of the Empire, in parliament, and to stripping Ireland of its legislature. It will, we presume, be reserved for the opponents of that great measure to render it that which we have all along believed it very capable of being made, namely a blessing to the sister island, and an augmentation of strength to Britain.—In the present elaborate tract, the author contends that good policy, not less than the essential interests of Ireland, require that its parliament should be restored to that country. Though an avowed enemy to the existing legislative union, which it must be owned he combats with considerable force, he is very anxious to profess his attachment to British connection. He argues strenuously in favour of catholic emancipation, and ably labours the point that persecution is the preserving principle of sects. It is this, he tells us, which keeps together the catholic body; the young members of which, who are possessed of property, being for the most part Deists, still adhere to their communion from motives of honor and generosity, in order to shun the charge of deserting a slighted and oppressed party. The author recommends the commutation of tithes, and the gift of salaries to the Romish clergy; and he complains of the Government lending its countenance to commemorations and associations which foster bigotry, and keep up an intolerant spirit. This is the production of a very enlightened mind, and contains many passages highly worthy of the attention of public men. Jo.

Art. 17. *Observations and Reflections on the State of Ireland:* respectfully submitted to the Consideration of the British Nation. By Robert Stearne Tighe, Esq. F. R. S. and S. A. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Hatchard. 1804.

Another warm advocate for poor Hibernia. Though not wanting in zeal, however, this writer exceeds all his fellow-labourers in temper and moderation; and he places great reliance on the pledges given to the Catholics by our Premier, of which he very respectfully reminds him. This pamphlet shews, indeed, that the several parties in our senate stand pledged to ameliorate the lot of ill-fated Ireland, yet still party succeeds party in office, and nothing has been done for the sons of Erin since the too short administration of Mr. Fox. In the same becoming spirit, Mr. Tighe animadverts on the sentiments of the Irish Lord Chancellor, as displayed in his memorable correspondence with Lord Fingal: he demonstrates the impolicy of them, and shews their total want of foundation. He enters into a vindication of Dr. Troy, the

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the catholic archbishop, and furnishes extracts from the pastoral charges of that reverend prelate, which bespeak the pious man and the loyal subject. We learn that the expression in the consecration oath of the catholic bishops, "*Hæreticos persequar et impugnabo,*" having been deemed offensive by the heads of the protestant church, was, at the representation of the catholic bishops, expunged by order of the Pope; and that his holiness also directed that a clause expressly reserving their allegiance to the Crown should be introduced, couched in the terms approved by the Empress of Russia for the Roman Catholic prelates of that empire.

Jo.

Art. 18. *Considerations on the two-fold Mode of Election adopted by the French.* By the Rev. Christopher Wyvill. 8vo. pp. 40. 1s. 6d. Johnson. 1804.

We are persuaded that the highly respectable author of this pamphlet is influenced by the most pure motives in all that he does; we admit also that his pen is ever guided by a dispassionate spirit, and always furnishes valuable instruction: but we are at the same time obliged to state that in these pages he censures more freely, and commends more lavishly, than on any former occasion. The colouring in the sketch which he draws of our Premier is certainly strong; whether it be or be not warranted, we submit to the decision of more qualified judges. Enumerating the cause of the decay of public spirit among us, he adds that, 'in the latter part of the reign of the King, the most potent bane to public virtue has been administered by a man, once its professed and devoted friend; after, that, too strongly tempted to govern by other maxims than those of liberty, by other motives than those of patriotic zeal; who by profusion acquired an almost boundless influence, and who by the arts of delusion, or the rigours of a system of terror and coercion, misled or intimidated those whom he failed to influence.'

The Minister comes again under the author's lash, when he compares the system recommended by his great rival on the political stage, with that which has been pursued:

'The first tends to elevate the general character of the community, the other to depress it. The first would preserve the Constitution in all its branches, by removing acknowledged abuses, restoring authority to the Bill of Rights, and conciliating to the King and nobles the support of the people from their love; the other would preserve the monarchy and the nobles by supporting abuses, infringing the Bill of Rights, maintaining the precedent he had introduced, and forcing the people to bow to the Constitution, *unreformed*, from fear.'

We give no opinion on these judgments; the person who pronounces them is a character justly held in veneration; and the public, we conceive, have an interest in learning his sentiments concerning men as well as measures.

Mr. Wyvill observes that, in these changeable times, it is not impossible that the nation may take a turn favourable to reform; and that the demand may be preferred in a way which cannot fail of success. In order to prevent what he conceives to be a material error from

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from infecting the proceedings that may be adopted, in the event of such an emergency, he has submitted to discussion the subject mentioned in the title-page; which he has treated in his usual able and ingenious manner. The doctrine of two-fold election was first recommended to political reformers by Harrington, who had found that it was actually put in practice in the republic of Venice. The authority which it derives from this quarter is, we think, very much reduced by the circumstance of its being coupled with unqualified praises of the Venetian Constitution, of which it formed a part. Of its first English advocate, who, overlooking the admirable model of government which he had seen first violated and then subverted, racked his brains to devise schemes of a commonwealth for his country, Montesquieu beautifully observes, *il a bati Chalcedoine, ayant le rivage de Bizance devant les yeux*; and his ingenuity, though great, was accompanied with so little judgment, that his cotemporaries deemed him scarcely sane.—The Essay of Hume was an exhibition of the playfulness of his genius, and was never meant by him to be a guide for practice. As Plato wrote his Republic, and More his Utopia, so Hume penned his Idea of a perfect Commonwealth; the doctrine which he lays down is at variance with his avowed principles; and he could therefore scarcely be serious in what he advanced.—We next see the same notion applauded in the *Vindiciæ Gallicæ*; the doctrines of which work, we are informed by Mr. Wyvill, have great weight with the friends of liberty, whatever the tenets may be which its learned author has since adopted. Earl Stanhope, also, it seems, in a letter to the author, applauds the dogma, and commends the part of the above work in which it is supported.

Such have been the inauspicious origin, and the limping progress, of the political device against which Mr. Wyvill has thought it worth his while to draw his able and elegant pen. The notion was adopted by a weak-judging philosopher, from the practice of one of the most oppressive governments in Europe; it exercised the ingenuity of a sceptical sage who was hostile to liberty; it passed thence into a modern publication, of the tenets of which its author publicly made something very like a formal renunciation; and the doctrine, thus abjured, Lord Stanhope has commended in a private letter. We cannot bring ourselves to think that there was any thing to be dreaded from an hypothesis, which has been so singularly circumstanced. Had it gained a footing that was in any degree formidable, we admit that the pamphlet before us would have been admirably calculated to undeceive its votaries: but, if we cannot allow that great practical benefit is likely to be derived from it, because the mischief which it is intended to correct scarcely exists, we should be unjust if we did not bestow praise on it, as containing a disquisition that will be read with pleasure by speculative politicians. Jo.

Art. 19. *Substance of the Bp. of St. Asaph's Speech in the House of Peers*, July 23, 1804, upon the Motion for the third Reading of the Bill intitled, An Act for the Relief of certain Incumbents of Livings in the City of London. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

The case of the city of London Clergy has previously been stated

in Mr. Moore's pamphlet: (see M. R. Vol. xli. N. S. p. 94.) but the Bishop of St. Asaph here reconsiders the subject, and argues with fairness and ability in behalf of the objects of this bill. He contends that, though the situation of the Clergy of the Metropolis is brought before Parliament in the shape of a private petition, the bill ought not to be regarded as a private bill, in as much as the matter to which it refers is of a public nature, being the support of the religion of the country, in the very seat of Empire.

Mor.

Art. 20. *Hints to the People of the United Kingdom in general, and of North Britain in particular*, on the present important Crisis; and some interesting collateral Subjects. By William Dickson, LL.D. 8vo. 1s. Ogle.

To an animated eulogy on our political constitution, Dr. Dickson adds an account of the improvements which we have made in agriculture, trade, and manufactures, and by which Britain is farther distinguished from other nations. While, however, he compliments our manual exertions, he laments that we have been retrograde in religion and morality. The progress of luxury in the Lowlands of Scotland, he describes, from his personal knowlege, to have been 'from hovels to good houses, and in several of the towns, from good houses to palaces; from home-made linen, stuffs, linsey-woolsey, and honest hodden-grey, to calicoes, muslins, silks, and English broad cloths; from brass sun-dials to silver-watches; from wholesome beer and butter-milk to whisky; from porter to port-wine; from substantial oat-meal porridge to that miserable outlandish slop called tea; and in many places from bread of oats, rye, barley, or peas, butter, cheese, eggs, new milk, fish, and potatoes, with meat, and nutritive barley-broth, occasionally, to wheaten bread (which 200 years ago, could be afforded only by the prime nobility), and butcher's-meat every day.'

Some of the alterations are allowed to be for the better: but against the use of cottons in Scotland, of tea, of spirits, and of butcher's meat *every day*, the Doctor offers his protest. Those who squander their money 'in ale-houses and gin-shops, or who sit in coffee-houses having silk stockings under their boots, and their bottle of port-wine before them,' ought not, he thinks, to declaim against the public burdens. Assured, however, that even croakers are good patriots at bottom, he offers his advice to them, and to the people at large; urging unanimity and zeal in the public cause, and reminding them of the superiority of British valour, and of the truly lamentable consequences which must result from their failing to exert it in the present important crisis.—Though Dr. D. as he tells us in the advertisement, has no longer a right hand, having been disabled in the service of his country, he has still a British heart. He calls on Britons 'to arm and to go forth, relying on the help of the God of their fathers, whose holy protection has so often been as "a wall of fire" around their church and nation; to return victorious, or to make their graves with those of Falkland, Hamden, and Russel, of Bruce, Graham, Gardiner, and Abercromby.'

D.

NOVELS.

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NOVELS.

Art. 21. *The Duchess of la Valliere.* An Historical Romance. By Madame de Genlis. Translated from the French. 12mo. 2 Vols. 8s. Boards. Murray.

It will readily be admitted by our readers, that any production from the pen of Madame de Genlis, to whose literary pretensions we have had such frequent occasion to bear our welcome testimony, is intitled to attention and respect. The history which is here given of the celebrated favourite of Lewis XIV. excites a very lively interest, not only on account of the natural goodness of heart which belonged to that unfortunate female, but from the agreeable manner of her historian, and from the many sensible reflections with which the narrative is enriched. Yet we cannot suppress a remark, which on similar occasions we have formerly advanced, that romances of this nature, in which liberties are taken with the records of history, and truth and fiction are blended together, have a pernicious tendency, proportioned to the importance of the historical facts which are thus violated. The more sensible and agreeable the writer, the more dangerous is the effect; since the fictitious incidents make the stronger impression, and are liable to be ever afterward associated in the mind of the reader with the recollection of real facts. We must add that, interesting as the present narrative undoubtedly is, we do not consider the life of such an heroine, all circumstances considered, as likely to advance the cause of religion and morals.

Art. 22. *Nature;* or a Picture of the Passions. To which is prefixed an Essay on Novel Writing. By J. Byerley. 12mo. 4 Vols. 14s. Boards. Highley.

In his preface, this author candidly acknowleges that he has deviated in several instances from the rules which he himself prescribes for a novel writer, in his essay on that subject prefixed to the present work. It is properly observed in that essay, that the events recorded in a novel should be precisely what may be supposed to take place, without exaggeration, in common life: but we do not think that the passions, which are here depicted, especially in the character of the Cardinal de Viguel, could be brought with safety to that criterion. Nature is forced beyond her accustomed limits in these instances, and the savage scenes which are introduced shock the feelings of the reader.—We meet with several innaccuracies in grammatical construction in these pages; as, for instance, the singular used for the plural, *whom* for *who*, and frequently the verb *lay* for *lie*: but the moral reflections of the writer are creditable; and if not in general deserving the praise of novelty, they have at least the merit of truth and propriety. We doubt not that every reader will sympathize with Mr Byerley, in the desire at least of having always 'a tear for distress, and a guinea for misfortune.'

The motto in the title-page is given with singular metaphorical impropriety:

'Passions, like *Winds*, will have their *ebbs* and *flows*.'

Art. 23. *The Pride of Ancestry*; or Who is She? By Mrs. Thomson. 12mo. 4 Vols. 16s. sewed. Parsons. 1804.

The object, which Mrs. Thomson appears to have principally in view in this performance, is to illustrate, by apposite examples on both sides, the truth of the observation, that titles and elevated birth are dangerous to the possessor, on account of the many snares and temptations which they afford to vicious indulgence: while a more humble station of life furnishes an asylum for virtue, and is often enriched with the enjoyment of a greater degree of repose and self-approbation. We have repeatedly had occasion to introduce this author to the notice of our readers; and therefore we shall only observe that the present production is diversified with several agreeable and amusing scenes; and although it occasionally descends too low in the picture which it furnishes of unpolished life, and is sometimes less correct than might be wished in point of language, yet on the whole it will be read with pleasure and approbation. The history of Sir Giles Geffreys, in the 4th volume, is irrelevant with regard to the main story: but there are few readers who will not enjoy a laugh at the description of that worthy knight's character. Man.

Art. 24. *St. Clair of the Isles*; or the Outlaws of Barra, a Scottish Tradition. By Elizabeth Helme. 12mo. 4 Vols. 14s. Boards. Longman and Co.

In the reign of James I. of Scotland, towards the middle of the 15th century, the events recorded in these volumes are supposed to have taken place. St. Clair, and a party of his companions, are, by the cruel and unjust artifices of their relentless persecutors, rendered outlaws, and banished to the Isle of Barra, one of the Hebrides. After various occurrences during their stay in this place, at the succession of James II interest is made at court in their behalf, and the sentence of outlawry is reversed. They then return to the world, and pass the remainder of their days in the enjoyment of their freedom. The narrative is plain and inoffensive; and in one or two instances the incidents excite attention: but, generally speaking, there is not sufficient animation in the tale to intitle it to a rank above that of mediocrity in this class of productions. Do

Art. 25. *Letters of Miss Riversdale*. 12mo. 3 Vols. 13s. 6d. Boards. Johnson.

The heroine of this novel resides with her widowed mother, Lady Riversdale, at Geneva; and her brother, Sir Henry, is a very accomplished gentleman absent on his travels. The separation of this affectionate brother and sister induces the necessity of a punctual correspondence, as a means of alleviating the regrets of that state; and the scene opens with lamentations on this subject. Miss R. tells us that it is her brother's request that four-and-twenty hours may never pass without something being committed to paper; and the request is faithfully fulfilled on the part of Louisa, who, after the manner of other journalists, details every minute event of her life, and every emotion of her heart. As she is very young, and very beautiful, no man of course sees Miss Riversdale without being fascinated: hence ensue lovers

 innumerable;

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innumerable; and, as it is the natural consequence of abundance to occasion a perplexity on the subject of choice, we perceive our heroine occasionally fluctuating between two opinions; till at last she decides in favour of Colonel Malcolm, who is such an Othello in jealousy that we tremble lest she should encounter a Desdemona's fate. We are, however, at length relieved from this anxiety by a sudden change of the scene; in which the Colonel retires to the back ground, drops his love and his jealousy, and accommodates his behaviour in a very gentleman-like manner to the imperious necessity of the history, which insists on his marrying Lady Mary Melville, who must have died had he not rescued her by a *coup de hague*. Miss Riversdale, having dissolved this chain, welcomes the return of liberty, and flies from place to place with the velocity of a bird. To-day, she is in London; to-morrow, she is at York; the next day she is in Scotland; and in every place she meets with great variety of characters, which she paints rather too much in the caricature style. They are merely sketches, hastily conceived and hastily executed; and by no means worthy of being classed as pictures of the general habits, manners, or language of the people whom Miss Riversdale describes. In many of the letters, however, we meet with good sense and good sentiments; and the student or proficient in French will be pleased with some parts of the dialogue, and some whole letters, which are written in that elegant language. We think that the story of this work does not excite sufficient interest on the point of incident, to rank in the class of novels; and that it should rather have been intitled, as the editor intimates, "Characters and Sketches of Manners."

Art. 26. *A Tale without a Title: give it what you please.* By Eugenia de Acton. 12mo. 3 Vols. 12s. Boards. Lane and Co. 1804.

Various changes of fortune in the life of Lady Laura Warburton, from the first instance of her relation's cruelty in consigning her to a vessel bound for America, to her final establishment in England, and her marriage with Mr. Conyers, excite a considerable portion of interest in the reader of these volumes. We may, however, object to the narrative in point of *probability*, and particularly to that part which relates her subsistence for several nights and days in a wild American forest. The author takes frequent occasion to introduce, in a sprightly and agreeable manner, reflections of a serious nature; and sentiments which, although little congenial with the *spirit of the world*, are, in our opinion, congenial with the spirit of true religion. The reader will question our approbation the less in this particular, when we farther inform him that this author is a disciple of the Reverend Robert Fellowes, whose "Christian Philosophy" and other publications we announced in former Reviews, in terms of high and merited commendation *. It gives us much pleasure to find, on retrospection, that our present opinion of this lady's merits, as a writer, coincides with that which we offered on a former production from the same pen.

* See Vol. xxxviii. &c.

Art. 27. *Valérie*; *ou Lettres de Gustave de Linar à Ernest de G—*. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. sewed. De Boffe, &c. 1804.

The agreeable turn of thought in these letters will furnish a very acceptable entertainment to the true admirers of nature and simplicity; while the local information, which is occasionally interspersed, together with the sentiments and reflections of a refined and well-directed mind, give additional charms to the scenery, and to the many pleasing images which are borrowed from views of nature. The insipidity of enjoyment, and the dissatisfaction, which attend the votaries of fashion, and those who move in the sphere of high life, are here affectingly contrasted with that delight and gladness of heart, which accompany those who seek to purify and refine their affections in the paths of piety, and in the duties of active benevolence. Mans.

Art. 28. *Human Frailties*. Interspersed with Poetry. 12mo. 3 Vols. 9s. sewed. Dutton.

When the frailties of human nature are exhibited to public view, and the characters of those who are lost to a sense of honor and the love of virtue are introduced to the acquaintance of the reader, he is poorly rewarded for the acquaintance which he obtains with such society, unless he is led by the author to draw conclusions in favor of an opposite line of conduct, and by the contrast between vice and virtue is strengthened and established in the esteem of the latter. We do not perceive that this object is sufficiently regarded in the present portrait of Human Frailties; nor is it in other respects intitled to much commendation. We learn, however, in these letters, a new mode of expressing ourselves on certain occasions; for instance: "to be emerged in business," to "extenuate revenge to too high a pitch," &c. &c. Do

Art. 29. *Sherwood Forest*; or Northern Adventures. By Mrs. Villa Real Gooch. 12mo. 3 Vols. 12s. Boards. Highley. 1804.

No precise period is assigned by the fair author of this tale, for the exact time in which these historical anecdotes may be supposed to have occurred: but, as the dwelling-place of the last inhabitants of a spot in the forest is represented as a perfect ruin at present, we may conclude that their history, and that of others their contemporaries, is of no very modern date. If we are right in this inference, we may be allowed to express our surprise on finding, in the course of this narrative, a regiment going to the West Indies, at the name of Christie as an auctioneer, and that of Dr. Willis as a physician. This history is too much broken and interrupted to form an agreeable whole; and although it contains some pleasing and some affecting passages, its contents have scarcely sufficient interest; while the sentiment is not always correct. To represent an adulterer as deserving *pity* rather than *blame*, (vol. ii. p. 73.) is surely a censurable piece of morality. Such language, we are aware, is too frequently applied to the palliation of vicious conduct: but an author, studious to inculcate virtuous principles, should cautiously avoid the dangerous practice of decking vice with a fair and specious robe. Do

POETRY.

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POETRY.

Art. 30. *The Shipwreck*, a Poem, by Wm. Falconer, a Sailor. The Text illustrated by additional Notes, and corrected from the 1st and 2d Editions, with a Life of the Author, by James Stanier Clarke, F.R.S. Vicar of Preston, and Chaplain of the Household of the Prince. 8vo. Royal Paper. 1l. 1s. Boards. Miller. 1804.

We have here a truly elegant edition of a well-known poem, of standard merit, both in a literary point of view, and as descriptive of the scenes which it depicts. The paper, type, and engravings, all deserve great praise; and the editor has taken pains to illustrate the text by many additional notes, from his own pen, and from those of several friends. The life of the author is also an addition for which the public is indebted to the industry and talents of Mr. Clarke.

Falconer's poem was first printed in 1702, and we spoke of it in deservedly high terms in our xxviith vol. p. 197. the major part of which article is copied by the present editor in his biographical memoir. The poet described the miseries of a scene which he had himself witnessed, having been shipwrecked in a Levant trader, of which he was mate, he and two others alone surviving: but this favorite of the Muses was the sport of Fortune, and was reserved only to experience a second disaster, in which he shared the common fate. He sailed from England in 1769, as purser of the Aurora frigate, which was ordered to take Mr. Vansittart and other supervisors to India; and no tidings of the vessel were ever obtained after she quitted the Cape, except the uncertain testimony of a black sailor, who, in 1773, deposed before the East India Directors that he was one of five persons who escaped from the wreck of the ship on the rocks of Mocoa.

This unfortunate poet was the son of poor parents at Edinburgh, and early went to sea: but he was a striking example of the truth of the adage, "*Poeta nascitur, non fit:*" nature had stamped him a son of Apollo; and neither the disadvantages of education, nor the obstacles of a sailor's life, could arrest the efforts of his genius. His situation only gave the theme to his song; and he produced a poem *, which, in the words of Mr. Clarke, 'is of inestimable value to this country, since it contains, within itself, the rudiments of navigation: if not sufficient to form a complete seaman, it may certainly be considered as the grammar of his professional science. I have heard many experienced officers declare that the rules and maxims delivered in this poem, for the conduct of a ship in the most perilous emergency, form the best, and indeed the only opinions which a skilful mariner should adopt. It is a poem, not only eminent for its sublimity and pathos, but for an harmonious poetic assemblage of technical terms, and maxims, used in navigation: which a young sailor may easily commit to memory; and also such scientific principles as will enable him to lay a sound foundation for his future professional skill

* He was also the author of some minor compositions, odes, songs, &c. and Mr. C. is of opinion that he wrote the famous song of "Cease, rude Boreas, blustering railer," usually attributed to G. A. Steevens.

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and judgment. We should, therefore, as Britons, respect this poem as the composition of a Naval Sybil.'

In all respects, we can recommend this volume to the notice of our readers: – to the collector of handsome books, to the lover of beautiful poetry, and to the curious in marine scenery, whether as amateurs or as professional men.

G. 2.

RELIGIOUS.

Art 31. *The Sacred Mirror:* or Compendious View of Scripture History, &c. &c. By the Rev. Thomas Smith. 12mo. pp. 300. 4s. Boards. Longman and Co.

A concise and perspicuous view of the Scripture History, in which the principal events and their corresponding dates might be traced in a manner inviting to youth, has been a desideratum among books intended for their use. We are therefore glad to announce this performance, which in many respects is well calculated to supply the defect: but we cannot help regretting that the author should have furnished his compilation with such dogmas of divines, as will prove a bar to its becoming a book of general utility. What advantage could the pious author suppose the youthful reader to derive from being told that *the Trinity* created the world, or from seeing that doctrine *proved* from the circumstances of our Saviour's baptism?—a proof, we must allow, as *subtle* as the truest schoolmen can desire.

'This was the clearest demonstration ever given to mortals of the existence of the HOLY TRINITY; for though we are told that God (the Father) is a consuming fire, and that none can see him and live; yet upon this solemn occasion, the voice of that God issued from the clouds of heaven whilst his co-equal son stood by the side of the Baptist, and the Holy Ghost rested visibly upon him, as a confirmation of his Divine nature and mission.'

How much better would it have been, had the author been contented with the simple statement of the Scriptures, and had he forborne to inculcate for doctrines and commandments the *glosses* and *deductions* of men!

If Mr. Smith might be induced to expunge these intricacies in a future edition, his Mirror would become a valuable school-book for youth of all parties and denominations.

Man.

Art. 32. *A Letter to a Parishioner*, upon some particular Questions respecting Tithes. With a Postscript containing different Texts of Scripture in Proof of the Arguments adduced in the Letter. 8vo. 1s. Law.

This letter writer's arguments deduced from Abraham's paying tithes to the king of Salem, or from the arrangements for the support of the tribe of Levi, can have no respect whatever to the Church of Christ under the Gospel, since neither our Lord nor his Apostles have given any directions for following the Levitical ordonnance in providing for the Christian priesthood. The principle, that they who preach the Gospel ought to live by it, does not tend to fix any particular mode of support. We consider, therefore, this Gentleman's attempts to establish the divine right of tithes as very impotent, and his

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his assertion that they who diminish the value of the *nine*-tenths to injure the Ministers *one*-tenth, 'are *guilty of sacrilege* towards God,' as very indiscreet. In these times, men are not thus to be frightened and silenced. Mo-y.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 33. *Verulamiana; or Opinions on Men, Manners, Literature, Politics, and Theology.* By Francis Bacon, Baron of Verulam, &c. &c. To which is prefixed a Life of the Author, by the Editor. 12mo. pp. 350. 4s. 6d. Boards. Dutton. 1803.

The present collection, from an author who abounds in wise sentences and apophthegms, is judiciously made; and with the following observation on prerogative and law we were much pleased;

'The king's prerogative and the law are not two things; but the king's prerogative is law, and the principal part of the law, the first-born or *pars prima* of the law: and therefore in conserving or maintaining that, we can serve and maintain the law. There is not in the body of man one law of the head, and another of the body, but all is one entire law.'

It should be recollected that these sentiments were written in the reign of Queen Elizabeth or of king James; and that the opinion on the subject of prerogative at that period, as to its limits and boundaries, would naturally differ from that which is entertained in the present day:—but whether circumscribed or extended, prerogative is law, and as such is intitled to protection and regard.

The Life contains interesting facts and reflections, which indicate a mind accustomed to extend its inquiries beyond the surface. We quote a remark in confirmation of this opinion:

'He (Lord Bacon) had made deep observations on human nature; but it may be doubted whether this knowledge contributed to his interests. Like most who have perplexed themselves with investigations of this description, he often imagined more cunning than actually existed, and was not unfrequently employed in combating the phantoms of his own creation. It is the error of men long accustomed to the machinations of the world, to believe that all is insincerity, vexation, and vanity; and generally to gather the bitter fruits of their belief. Lord Bacon thought dissimulation in some cases so indispensible, and even justifiable, that he carried it to an extent highly injurious to himself. There is reason for concluding that his extreme love of letters was in a great degree affected, in order to cover his ambition as a politician, by indicating an opinion of his real indifference to public employment: yet his enemies successfully retorted, on this very ground, representing him as a man of learning, rather than business, and therefore unfitted for those situations to which he secretly aspired.'

The readers of this little volume will be rewarded for the attention which they bestow on its contents. S.R.

Art. 34. *The Man in the Moon;* consisting of Essays and Critiques on the Politics, Morals, Manners, Drama, &c. of the present Day. 8vo. pp. 194. 4s. sewed. Highley. 1804.

This is an attempt at periodical essay-writing,—the peculiar province

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vince of minds of the highest culture,—the field in which genius, wit, humour, are usually seen to adorn the fruits of various reading, and of polished converse. The author before us is not duly possessed of the pretensions of this order; nature did not intend him, nor do his attainments qualify him, for occupying this high literary ground. If however his lucubrations do not add to the stock of information, nor refine the taste, neither are they chargeable with any vicious or injurious tendency; and the sentiments inculcated are those of a virtuous, patriotic, and tolerant mind. No abstruse nor delicate subjects are discussed: but the essayist wisely confines himself to such as are within the grasp of ordinary strength; and many of his remarks are deserving of attention. Jo.

Art. 35. *Journal of a short Excursion among the Swiss Landscapes;* made in the Summer of the Year Ninety-four. 12mo. pp. 132. Murray. 1803.

It must be admitted that this writer possesses a mind sensible to natural beauty, and that he sketches in a lively and happy manner the scenes which gave him pleasure. Lovers of such descriptions in writing will be pleased therefore with the repast which is here prepared for them, though not served in the highest style. One track not often trodden by Swiss tourists, because it is open only to pedestrians, was followed by this traveller; it it that which leads from Meyringen to Lucerne, through the canton of Underwalden. The scenery which here meets the eye almost warrants the strong language in which this author speaks of it, when he says, 'All that can be found in nature, poetry, or dreams, the canton of Underwald shewed us this day.' Swiss scenes, however, will in future not administer to British bosoms the pleasures which they were wont to communicate, viz. those which arose from regarding them as the residence of an independent and high-spirited people. The chief beauty of the landscape has faded, and the charm which constituted its highest interest has vanished.

That the Valaisannes had no existence but in the imagination of Rousseau, can hardly be a discovery to any of the readers of his fascinating romance. Jo.

Art. 36. *An Essay on the Art of ingeniously Tormenting;* with proper Rules for the Exercise of that amusing Study. Humbly addressed Part I. to the Master, Husband, &c. Part II. to the Wife, Friend, &c. With some general Instructions for plaguing all your Acquaintance. Cr. 8vo. pp. 229. 6s. Boards. Miller. 1804.

This successful effort at ironical instruction was first published in 1753, and was adequately noticed in our viiith vol. p. 274. The present editor is the Rev. J S. Clarke, who ascribes the production to Miss Jane Collier, eldest sister of Dr. Collier of the Commons, the intimate friend of the celebrated Fielding and his sister Sarah. Few biographical particulars of this lady have come to the editor's knowlege: but he adds that she enjoyed the friendship and confidence of Richardson; and that she and her friend Miss S. Fielding were excellent Greek and Latin scholars. The work is handsomely printed. G.2.

Art.

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Art. 37. *The Confessions of J. Lackington*, late Bookseller, at the Temple of the Muses, in a Series of Letters to a Friend. To which are added, Two Letters on the bad Consequences of having Daughters educated at Boarding-Schools. 12mo pp. 212. 2s. Boards. Jordan and Maxwell.

How far Mr. Lackington will accomplish his wish of "making a holiday in Heaven," we presume not to decide, but we may venture to assure him that he will be a source of mirth on this globe. Whitfield was accustomed to say to his hearers, "Come to Christ, the dirtier the better," and the subscribers to this doctrine must regard Mr. Lackington as a most precious child of Grace: for no pious old maiden could be more energetic in pronouncing herself "the vilest of sinners," than this modern Confessor,—or perhaps would be more offended if taken at her word. Has Mr. L. been ambitious of resembling the character which Pope gives of Lord Wharton:

"Then turns repentant, and his God adores
With the same spirit that he drinks and w——s?"

Let him be flattered by this comparison, and take it in lieu of all other compliments: for our opinion is, that true repentance is modest and unostentatious; and that the judicious among the Methodists will not be much delighted with this sort of Confessions. Mr. L. would persuade us that he formerly kept very bad company, a fact which we are not disposed to controvert: but we cannot give him credit when he asserts that his *enlightened* friend Dick Thrifty 'doubted of his own existence.' Even in the very Temple of the Muses, we question the possibility of finding a doubter who doubted whether his doubting-self existed.

The liberty which Mr. L. takes with himself should not be extended to his acquaintance; who, even under feigned names, cannot be pleased with the portrait which their friend has drawn of them. We will not say that he who writes a long account of his repentance sets down more than is true: but we must tell Mr. Lackington that he will be in high luck if he finds people who will implicitly credit all that he has written. Since he has interlarded his work with many quotations from the poets, we shall call it a *poetical* confession; by which we do not mean to question the fact of his being sincerely concerned for having ridiculed the Methodists; though we are of opinion that the ostentation and vain display, which are made by the Confessor, can be little to the credit of his christian humility. On such good terms is he now with himself, and so satisfied of the force of his arguments, that he wishes to compare himself to St. Paul, and expects that his correspondent should say to him, 'Almost thou persuadest me to be a Methodist.' He confesses that, if it had not been for methodistic preaching, 'he should now have been a poor, ragged, dirty cobler, peeping out from under a bulk with a snuffy nose and a long beard;' and to poor snuffy nosed coblers this hint may be of use in persuading them to be methodists, since thus they may get something better than "a stall which serves them for kitchen and parlour and all." If Mr. L. was formerly severe on the Methodists, he endeavours now to make them amends; and their preachers owe him their lowest bow for his compliments.

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The letters on Boarding Schools are intended to reprobate this mode of education as productive of vice, and as disqualifying females for the state of matrimony. It is very true that the system of boarding school education is on too high a level to adapt females for the duties of ordinary life.

May.

Art. 32. *The Farmer's and Gardener's Directory*, containing the most approved Rules and Directions for foretelling the Changes which take place in the Weather; with Observations on the Barometer, Thermometer, Hygrometer, and Rain-Gauge. 12mo. pp. 48. 1s. Scatchard.

In our variable climate, it is of great importance to be *weather-wise*, or to be acquainted with those prognostics which indicate the changes of the atmosphere. To the agriculturist, this knowlege is peculiarly valuable; and he is obliged to the author of this little unostentatious manual, for the hints which it contains;—hints which, in general, display attentive observation and philosophic reading. This Directory contains, Signs from Animals, &c. Signs from Vapours, Clouds, &c. all indicating a change of weather. Signs of wet and dry Seasons. The influence of the Moon on the weather. Signs from the Barometer, Hygrometer, &c.

All the remarks here suggested are not of equal value: but, as the piece is small, the purchase of this tract may be a shilling well laid out by those who are much concerned in the state of the weather, and who may bring its rules to the test of experience. The editor observes that

'When the *Swallows* fly high after their prey, we think ourselves sure of a serene sky; but when they fly low and brush the surface of the water with their wings, we judge that rain is not far off.'

'When the *Gnats* collect themselves, before the setting of the sun, and form a sort of vortex, in the shape of a column, it announces fine weather.'

'The *Earth*, after very long and abundant rain, is sometimes seen to be almost dry, and the *Roads* quite free from dirt. This is a sign, that the rain has not altogether ceased; and denotes a continual efflux of electric matter, which, being renewed, carries with it, in the form of vapour, all the moisture that falls on the earth.

'There is sometimes a great deal of *dirt* after a very moderate rain: this is a sign of fine weather; because it indicates that evaporation has ceased.'

'There is no surer sign of rain, than two different *Currents of Clouds*, especially if the under-current flies fast before the wind. And if two such currents appear in hot weather, they shew, that a thunder storm is gathering.'

On wet and dry seasons, the following rules are laid down:

'A *Day* is accounted *Wet*, when rain falls to the amount of one pound troy, on the space of a square foot. A *Week*, when it contains four or more wet days. A *Month*, when it contains three wet weeks. And a *Season*, or *Quarter of a Year*, when it contains two wet months.

'When there has been no storm, before or after the *Vernal Equinox*, the ensuing summer is generally *Dry*, at least five times in six.

'When

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'When a storm happens from the east, either on the 19th, 20th, or 21st of March, the succeeding summer is *Dry*, four times in five.

'When a Storm arises on the 25th, 26th, or 27th of March, and not before, in any point, the succeeding summer is generally *Dry*, four times in five.

'If there should be a Storm at south-west, or west south west, on the 19th, 20th, 21st, or 22d, the succeeding summer is generally *Wet*, five times in six.

'It rains less in March than in November in the proportion of seven to twelve.

'It generally rains less in April than in October, in the proportion of one to two. And less in May than in September, in the proportion of three to four

'When it rains plentifully in May, it generally rains but little in September; and the contrary.

'Out of forty-one years, there will in general be twenty-two dry *Springs*, six wet, and thirteen variable ones; also twenty wet *Summers*, sixteen dry, and five variable ones; and probably eleven dry *Autumns*, eleven wet, and nineteen variable ones.

'The quantity of rain which falls in nine successive years is nearly equal to that which falls in the next following nine. And every nineteenth year is generally similar.—This similarity was very striking between the temperature of the years 1701, 1720, 1739, 1758 and 1777.'

Gentlemen, also, who have Barometers, may be thankful for the instruction which is here offered for using that instrument. Mo:y.

Art. 39. *The Intruder:* a periodical Paper. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Printed at Aberdeen.

We have perused this little volume with a considerable degree of pleasure and approbation. Although some of its papers are particularly calculated for the meridian of Aberdeen, from the local observations on customs and manners, which they contain; yet there are others which furnish useful reflections and rational entertainment, worthy the attention of the inhabitants even of this southern and enlightened metropolis. If we may make any exception to this statement, it is with regard to the paper 'on Vanity.'

'Without becoming the incautious advocate of many vain-glorious fools, who claim more respect than the world is willing to allow them, and disclaiming all intention of usurping the dominion of modesty, I must humbly assert the rights and privileges to which I think vanity is entitled, and endeavour to undeceive the learned, with respect to a celebrated ancient orator, whose merit has been depreciated with the accusation of insufferable vanity. I have before alluded to the ease with which an author can commit his own praise to paper; and as my observation has been very extensive, I have seen with surprise many persons of that description, summoning their whole resolution, to support an ordinary conversation on the state of the weather, births, deaths, marriages, &c. when all their efforts with much blushing and stammering, could produce little beyond the sound of an occasional monosyllable. But this awkwardness is not alone chargeable against them; for there are others, and men of good sense too, whom I have seen equally perplexed and as easily put out of countenance, on the most common occasions.

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casions. They cannot walk into a room where there is any company, make a bow, or answer to an inquiry respecting their health, without rendering their uneasiness and embarrassment evident to every one present; and sometimes, not without throwing their bodies into such violent distortions, that an observer might think they were going to expire. But this is not all; to have any tolerable idea of their behaviour, you must figure to yourself, the innumerable mistakes and foolish blunders, which they who labour under this awkward diffidence fall into; and you must suppose, every one pretending to compassionate the poor creatures, yet ready on all occasions, to laugh at their distress.

'In company with their equals they assume some more composure, and perhaps behave with a good deal of propriety; but, in presence of every stranger, and more particularly of their superiors, all their courage fails them, and they sink into the most abject state of awkward insignificance. Now, what I affirm is, that a little vanity would cure them of all this; or at least, prove by degrees an excellent means of correcting bashfulness, and finally of giving an entire new turn to the manners, not only favourable to happiness, but also essential to true dignity of character. For, while a man continues so awkwardly diffident as I have before represented, he will never secure that esteem and regard, which he will have the mortification to see bestowed, almost exclusively, on those whose carriage is easy and unconstrained, whose manners are dignified and respectful. A man that is not at ease with himself, will seldom appear unembarrassed in company; that openness of behaviour and freedom of conversation which delight every body else, will soon become irksome and tedious to him, whose anxiety and impatience are habitual from distrust in himself. How much do I admire that manliness of thought, which begets in us the consciousness of our own importance! We ought to carry it along with us through every situation of life; because accompanied with occasional pliability and tempered with moderation, it will form our best security against the arrogance of the great, and the general artifices of the world.'

The author should have *defined* the term Vanity, before he recommended it as a *virtuous* quality, and then perhaps he might have coincided with the author of No. 373. in the Spectator, where the happy mixture of modesty and assurance is recommended; and surely with more propriety than vanity can be, which is generally understood to be a *weakness*, and the property of a man who over-rates his merits.—We rather think that this correspondent really means a *just and manly confidence*; which undoubtedly every one should attempt to attain, by conscious rectitude and the sedulous exertion of his talents. In the mean time, we shall only add on this subject that the moralist ought carefully to guard against such a *misapplication of terms* as may tend to weaken the distinctions between virtue and vice, and to break down the wall of separation between the path of wisdom and that of folly. The ensuing extract, from a correspondent's letter on the subject of candour, will shew that such distinctions and proper discriminations between good and evil qualities of the mind are not always neglected in this volume.

'What a pity, that human beings, born in a christian land, endowed with reason, or possessed of the least spark of fellow-feeling, should be so insensible to the dictates of humanity, and so void of that

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that natural philanthropy which pervades even the breast of the wildest savage, as to feel a pleasure in displeasing others, traducing their reputations, wounding their dearest interests, and producing discord and dissention between husband and wife, father and son, between man and man. What advantage can they derive, what good can they expect from such wicked endeavours?

'Who steals my purse, steals trash; 'tis something, nothing;
'Twas mine, 'tis his, and has been slave to thousands;
But he, that filches from me my good name,
Robs me of that, which not enriches him,
And makes me poor indeed!'

'On the contrary, how amiable is that character which is endowed with candour and charity towards all men. Liberality of sentiment is an essential, a distinguishing ingredient in the character of a worthy or great mind; open and cheerful in itself, it diffuses cheerfulness and good humour over all who are under its influence; it forms the ground of mutual confidence and union among men, and prevents those animosities from arising, which are the offspring of groundless prejudice. In the magistrate, it tempers justice with lenity; among subjects, it promotes good order, social virtue, and the most friendly intercourse. But it may be necessary to distinguish between this amiable virtue, and that unreal candour, with which the man of the world endeavours to deceive. To view all the actions of men with the same degree of satisfaction is inconsistent with common sense, and contrary to the express precepts of morality. Were we to think and speak equally well of all, we must either be insensible to the difference between right and wrong, or indifferent to that distinction when we perceive it. This virtue does not really consist in that guarded inoffensive language, which some men pour out in the sweetest accents, and with the most lovely countenances, on every character good or bad; nor is it really to be found in those who can publicly approve of, and with the greatest seeming sincerity defend, the conduct of those who may or may not merit their commendation. Envy can put on the mask of hypocrisy, and act the part of candour; and could we penetrate into the hidden movements of the mind, we should discover that the hypocrite secretly hates and despises the man whom he has publicly commended.'

The concluding paper addresses with awe and reverence the dread tribunal of critics and reviewers: but yet with that *manly confidence* which becomes an independent and virtuous author.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 40. Preached before the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, in the Abbey Church of Westminster, May 25, 1804, being the Day appointed by His Majesty's Royal Proclamation to be observed as a Day of solemn Fasting and Humiliation. By George Isaac Huntingford, D.D. F.R.S., Bishop of Gloucester. 4to. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies.

It is justly remarked by this learned preacher, that 'Christianity pre-supposes its followers to be members of civil community, and to them, considered in that capacity, applies many of its precepts.' Though the mass or aggregate of political duties is not particularly specified in the N. T. under the term Patriotism, the several direc-

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tions which it gives respecting our social conduct, if attentively followed, cannot fail of consummating the character of the Patriot. The spirit of the Gospel is generous Benevolence, in opposition to mean Selfishness. Hence Dr. H. taking for his text 1 Cor. x. 24. exhorts his hearers to the noblest exercise of the social virtues, and explains the several occasions on which the Christian will sacrifice private to public good. 'Patriotism,' he remarks, 'will prefer the safety of our country to improper considerations of increasing riches; to improper considerations of ease and indolence; to improper love of power and dominion; to improper gratification of self will; and finally will display its regard for the welfare of the community by inducing every person who is actuated by its spirit, to set a good example of attention to religious duties, and of practice in moral virtues.' Few persons can be conspicuously active on the great theatre of politics: but 'in religion and morals, we can all be patriots;' and the Bishop exhorts his hearers to give this proof of love to their country, if they wish that their prayers for the safety of the empire may prevail. He briefly commemorates the valour of those British worthies who have fought for their native land, and whose ashes are enshrined in the sacred edifice in which his audience was assembled; to awaken pious gratitude, he adverts to past national deliverances; and he reminds us of the particular blessing of Providence, in girding us with the strength of the ocean, μεγα σθενος ωκεανοιο. Mosy.

Art. 41. *In Behalf of those useful and benevolent Institutions* called Friendly Societies, preached at Navestock, Essex, by John Filkes, B.D., Vicar. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1802.

Very appropriate to the design, plain, sensible, and useful. These Societies are recommended to attention, by considering that, by such an establishment, 'the burdens of our fellow creatures are lightened, their morals are influenced and amended; and formed on a Christian principle, they are conducive in a singular manner to Christian piety.'

The author observes, in a short preface, 'I should not have committed this sermon to the press, had I not been anxious to put a discourse on this subject into the hands of my parishioners; and for such a discourse, my inquiry at the book-seller's was always fruitless.'—Mr. Filkes's publication appears to be very seasonable; and we are sorry that it has been so late in receiving our notice and approbation. Hi.

CORRESPONDENCE.

'A Constant Reader,' at Lestwithiel, is certainly right in his philological remark; and we shall endeavour to enforce his suggestion.

The Editor of Boccaccio is informed that his work is under consideration.

'A Constant Reader,' whose letter bears the Norwich post mark, has our thanks for his obliging communication.

To J. M—d,—A. O.—&c. we have only to say, "*there is a time for all things.*"

Error, p. 140, p. 199.

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THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For NOVEMBER, 1804.

ART. I. *Memoirs of the Life, Writings, and Correspondence of Sir William Jones.* By Lord Teignmouth. 4to. pp. 530. 1l. 1cs. Boards. Hatchard. 1804.

THE luminary, whose course is here traced, we have had occasion to observe during the whole of its brilliant progress, from the brightness of its dawn to its setting lustre: an object at once sublime and engaging; a model to all who would acquire honourable distinction by the application of talents and the practice of virtue. Though it be allowed to few human beings to acquire so many titles to the regard and esteem of mankind, as those which were attained by the subject of these memoirs, yet should his example be deeply studied and zealously emulated. Many generous youths, though happily formed by nature, may indeed scarcely hope to rival him; or may despair of ever equalling him in the extent, solidity, and diversity of his attainments. If, however, they feel not conscious of the force which would enable them to unite to the erudition of Europe that of Asia, and to superadd to both a considerable eminence in the law and in science, still let them attentively weigh the qualities, habits, and rules of acting of this illustrious individual; and then, by a similar exertion of their powers, with industry equally unremitting, they may expect to make such a proficiency in some one pursuit, as shall improve their condition in life, enable them to render essential service to society, and insure them permanent fame.

We cannot contemplate the character of Sir William Jones without thinking well of our common nature, of which he was so bright an ornament; nor without being captivated with intellectual and moral excellence. Who that considers his enlarged and elevated views, his indefatigable industry, that perseverance which nothing could shake, and that integrity which braved all attacks, can abandon himself to grovelling pursuits, can vegetate in inglorious indolence, or can prostitute himself at the shrine of corruption? When we reflect on the accomplishments and labours of this consummate scholar, who received

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ceived the homage of the learned as well of Asia as of Europe, who was revered by the Pundits and Pahlavis of the former not less than by the literati and the sages of the latter; when we survey him as an enlightened patriot and upright magistrate in the state, a pious Christian in private life, the solace of his family, the delight of his friends, and the admiration of strangers; we are warranted in affirming that he was one of the most exalted of human beings, and that his memory will be loved and reverenced to the latest time.

In reading these memoirs, we are inclined to regret that the lamented subject of them did not at first devote himself to the law, instead of entering the Spencer family as a tutor, and dedicating himself to oriental studies: but, when we call to mind the region into which he was eventually transplanted, the high station which he was there appointed to fill, and the extraordinary services which he was destined thus to render to his native country and its Indian dependencies, we regard the plan of the whole of his past life as the most proper that could have been chosen. The polish derived from travel and intercourse with the great must have enabled him to adorn his elevation; and varied learning, united to a liberal knowlege of the law, better qualified him for the situation of a judge in the supreme court of Bengal, than superior technical science, or a profound acquaintance with positive municipal regulations. Had he not also entered deeply into Eastern literature, our tribunals in India would never have had the benefit of the improved mode of administering oaths to the Hindus and Mohammedans; would have been deprived of the English version of the Ordinances of Menou; and the indefatigable judge would have been unable to project that splendid undertaking,—a digest of the Hindu and Mohammedan law,—so worthy of his genius to plan and to superintend, and of his beneficence and industry to take so active a part in executing.

Regarding Sir William Jones solely in a literary point of view, the reader of his works must be struck with the ease with which he treated each of the widely different subjects, on which at different times he exercised his pen. No one described outward qualities more nearly and accurately, nor shewed more acuteness in penetrating to those which were concealed from general observation. This faculty could arise only from taking a minute inspection of whatever matter came under his consideration, from submitting it to a patient examination, and from unceasing labour to reach that eminence with regard to it, whence he was able, with facility, to survey all its aspects, relations, and bearings.—We abstain, however, from proceeding with this sketch, into which we have been unintentionally drawn by our veneration

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veneration for such a character; and, if we may be allowed the liberty of giving expression to our feelings, we will add, by our *affection* for such a friend! Let us now hasten to impart to our readers as much of the contents of the very pleasing volume before us, as our limits will admit.

This work, being a tribute of friendship to departed excellence, is certainly intitled to every indulgence from the critic: but we are happy in having it in our power to state that it little needs any such allowance. With modest pretensions, it displays considerable merit; and its execution altogether reflects credit on the industry, the judgment, and the affectionate nature of its author. While, however, we cannot refrain from blaming a degree of reserve discoverable in some parts of the narrative, with regard to the political sentiments and declarations of Sir William Jones, we coincide with all the conclusions of the noble biographer, respecting the opinions and principles of his friend. We are equally convinced of his enthusiatic attachment to the British constitution; and we are not less satisfied than Lord Teignmouth himself that, if he had been aware that any measures which he supported, though ever so warmly and zealously, tended in any degree to endanger it, he would, with the utmost alacrity, have corrected or abandoned them.

Fable, says the historian, envelopes the cradles of great cities and states; and it would seem as if it were fond of connecting itself with all that is eminent and illustrious. Lewis Morris, a celebrated Welsh antiquary, traced the pedigree of Sir William Jones to the antient princes and chieftains of Wales: but it is admitted that the father of Sir William, whose name and character are well known to men of science, was the first of the family who distinguished himself; and that his grandfather was a yeoman living in the isle of Anglesea. Mothers have so frequently had such a material influence on the characters of their sons, and it was ever so much the pride of the illustrious subject of these memoirs to acknowlege his obligations to maternal instructions and counsels, that we shall take the liberty of submitting to our readers the just, but somewhat quaint description given of Mrs. Jones by her husband: "she was virtuous without blemish, generous without extravagance, frugal but not niggard, cheerful but not giddy, close but not sullen, ingenious but not conceited, of spirit but not passionate, of her company cautious, in her friendship trusty, to her parents dutiful, and to her husband ever faithful, loving, and obedient."

The anxiety which this lady manifested, with respect to the education of her son, shews that she merited this high character; and the sense which she appears to have entertained of the importance of this task, with the measures which she adopted to insure

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to him the greatest possible advantages, prove her to have been a very superior woman. It is evident, indeed, that to the early judicious plans of his mother, he owed a great share of his literary pre-eminence; and it must enhance her merit, that she was obliged to make sacrifices in order to carry them into execution.

'In the plan adopted by Mrs. Jones for the instruction of her son, she proposed to reject the severity of discipline, and to lead his mind insensibly to knowledge and exertion, by exciting his curiosity, and directing it to useful objects. To his incessant importunities for information on casual topics of conversation, which she watchfully stimulated, she constantly replied, *read, and you will know*; a maxim, to the observance of which he always acknowledged himself indebted for his future attainments. By this method, his desire to learn became as eager as her wish to teach; and such was her talent of instruction, and his facility of retaining it, that in his fourth year he was able to read, distinctly and rapidly, any English book. She particulary attended at the same time to the cultivation of his memory, by making him learn and repeat some of the popular speeches in Shakespeare, and the best of Gay's Fables.'

The noble biographer very properly cautions his readers against drawing, from the present instance, any conclusions in favour of premature instruction; and he justly observes that the expediency or inexpediency of it must depend, in each instance, on the capacity of the pupil, and the judgment of the tutor.

In his fifth year, young Jones eagerly perused such books as came in his way:

'As he was one morning turning over the leaves of a Bible in his mother's closet, his attention was forcibly arrested by the sublime description of the angel in the tenth chapter of the Apocalypse, and the impression which his imagination received from it was never effaced. At a period of mature judgment he considered the passage as equal in sublimity to any in the inspired writers, and far superior to any that could be produced from mere human compositions; and he was fond of retracing and mentioning the rapture which he felt, when he first read it.'

At the age of seven, he was sent to Harrow school:

'During the first two years of his residence at this place he was rather remarked for diligence and application, than for the superiority of his talents, or the extent of his acquisitions; and his attention was almost equally divided between his books and a little garden, the cultivation and embellishment of which occupied all his leisure hours. His faculties however necessarily gained strength by exercise; and during his school vacations, the sedulity of a fond parent was without intermission exerted to improve his knowledge of his own language. She also taught him the rudiments of drawing, in which she excelled.'

In

In his ninth year, he had the misfortune to break his thigh bone, while playing with his school-fellows; an accident which kept him at home a whole year.

'On his return to school, he was however placed in the same class which he would have attained, if the progress of his studies had not been interrupted. He was of course far behind his fellow-labourers of the same standing, who erroneously ascribed his insufficiency to laziness or dulness: while the master, who had raised him to a situation above his powers, required exertions of which he was incapable, and corporal punishment and degradation were applied, for the non-performance of tasks, which he had never been instructed to furnish. But in truth he far excelled his school-fellows in general, both in diligence and quickness of apprehension; nor was he of a temper to submit to imputations, which he knew to be unmerited. Punishment failed to produce the intended effect; but his emulation was roused. He devoted himself incessantly to the perusal of various elementary treatises, which had never been explained nor even recommended to him; and having thus acquired principles, he applied them with such skill and success, that in a few months he not only recovered the station from which he had been degraded, but was at the head of his class: his compositions were correct, his analysis accurate, and he uniformly gained every prize offered for the best exercise. He voluntarily extended his studies beyond the prescribed limits, and by solitary labour, having acquired a competent knowledge of the rules of prosody, he composed verses in imitation of Ovid, a task, which had never been required from any of the students in the lower school at Harrow.'

He always spoke of this brutal behaviour of the master with great abhorrence; and it is impossible for us not to pause here, in order to reflect on the strange incidents that happen in this lower world; one of the least curious of which is certainly not that which exhibits a youth inhumanly chastised, and treated as a blockhead, who was destined to be the brightest ornament of his age, and the first linguist that ever lived.

We are now to consider our hero from the time of his admission to the upper school, which was in his twelfth year, till that of his entering the University, in 1764. The following instance of his superior powers of memory is mentioned as having happened at the commencement of this period:

'His school-fellows proposed to amuse themselves with the representation of a play; and at his recommendation they fixed upon the Tempest: as it was not readily to be procured, he wrote it for them so correctly from memory, that they acted it with great satisfaction to themselves, and with considerable entertainment to the spectators. He performed the character of Prospero.

'His diligence increased with his advancement in the school: he now entered upon the study of the Greek tongue, the characters of which he had already learned for his amusement. His genius and assiduity

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siduity were also displayed in various compositions, not required by the discipline of the school. He translated into English verse several of the epistles of Ovid, all the pastorals of Virgil, and composed a dramatic piece on the story of Meleager, which he denominated a tragedy; and it was acted during the vacation, by some of his school-fellows with whom he was most intimate. In his own play he performed the part of the hero.'—

'These juvenile efforts contributed to establish the influence and reputation of Jones in the school; and the success with which his studies had latterly been pursued, left him no reason to regret the disadvantages under which he had at first laboured. His improvement in the knowledge of prosody was truly extraordinary; he soon acquired a proficiency in all the varieties of Roman metre, so that he was able to scan the trochaic and iambic verses of Terence, before his companions even suspected that they were any thing but mere prose. He also learnt to taste the elegance of that writer, and was frequently heard to repeat with particular satisfaction the rule in the Andria:

Facile omnes perferre et pati
Nunquam præponens se aliis.

Such was the extent of his attainments, and such his facility of composition, that for two years he wrote the exercises of many boys in the two superior classes, who often obtained credit for performances to which they had no title, whilst the students in the same class with himself were happy to become his pupils. During the holidays his studies were varied, but not relaxed; in these intervals, he learned the rudiments of French and arithmetic, and was particularly gratified with an invitation to attend the meetings of learned and ingenious men, at the house of that amiable philosopher, Mr. Baker, and his friend, Mr. Pond. As an introduction to the knowledge of the subjects discussed in this literary society, by the particular recommendation of his mother, he read the *Spectacle de la Nature*; he acknowledged, however, that he was more entertained with the Arabian Tales, and Shakespeare, whose poems and plays he repeatedly perused with increased delight.

'In the usual recreations of his school-fellows at Harrow, Jones was rarely a partaker; and the hours which they allotted to amusement, he generally devoted to improvement. The following anecdote strongly indicates the turn of his mind, and the impression made by his studies. He invented a political play, in which Dr. William Bennet, Bishop of Cloyne, and the celebrated Dr. Parr, were his principal associates. They divided the fields in the neighbourhood of Harrow, according to a map of Greece, into states and kingdoms; each fixed upon one as his dominion, and assumed an ancient name. Some of their school-fellows consented to be styled barbarians, who were to invade their territories and attack their hillocks, which were denominated fortresses. The chiefs vigorously defended their respective domains against the incursions of the enemy; and in these imitative wars, the young statesmen held councils, made vehement harangues, and composed memorials, all doubtless very boyish, but calculated to fill their minds with ideas of legislation and civil government. In these unusual

unusual amusements, Jones was ever the leader; and he might justly have appropriated to himself the words of Catullus:

Ego gymnasii flos, ego decus olei.

'Dr. Thackeray retired from the superintendance of the school at Harrow, when his pupil had attained his fifteenth year. It was a singular trait in the character of this good man and respectable tutor, that he never applauded the best compositions of his scholars, from a notion which he had adopted, that praise only tended to make them vain or idle. But the opinion which he gave of Jones in private was, that he was a boy of so active a mind, that if he were left naked and friendless on Salisbury Plain, he would nevertheless find the road to fame and riches.

'Dr. Thackeray was succeeded by Dr. Sumner; and for his information of the course of study pursued at Harrow, a plan of the lectures and exercises in the upper school was accurately delineated by Jones, at the suggestion of the principal assistant, who presented it to the new master, with many encomiums on the talents of his favourite scholar. He annexed to it a collection of his compositions, including his translation of the pastorals of Virgil. Dr. Sumner quickly distinguished him; and of the two complete years which he passed under that excellent instructor, it is sufficient to say, that he employed them in reading and imitating the best ancient authors; nor did he confine himself merely to the compositions of Greece and Rome; he learned the Arabic characters, and studied the Hebrew language sufficiently to enable him to read some of the original Psalms. His ardour for knowledge was so unlimited, that he frequently devoted whole nights to study, taking coffee or tea as an antidote to drowsiness; and his improvement by these extraordinary exertions was so rapid, that he soon became the prime favourite of his master, who with an excusable partiality was heard to declare, that Jones knew more Greek than himself, and was a greater proficient in the idiom of that language. Nor was he less a favourite with his fellow-students than with his master. He acquired popularity with them, by the frequent holidays that rewarded the excellence of his compositions. His reputation at the same time was so extensive, that he was often flattered by the enquiries of strangers, under the title of the Great Scholar.'

'Of his juvenile compositions in prose and verse, the early fruits of rare talents and unbounded industry, some have been printed in the fragment of a work which he began at school and entitled Limon, in imitation of Cicero. During the last months of his residence at Harrow, Dr. Sumner not only dispensed with his attendance at school, but was obliged to interdict his application, in consequence of a weakness of sight contracted by it. His compositions were not however discontinued; and he obtained the assistance of the younger students to write them from his dictation. He employed the intervals of suspended duty, which he was reluctantly compelled to admit, in learning chess, by practising the games of Philidor.

'During the vacations, his application was directed to improve his knowledge of French and arithmetic, to which he also added the study of the Italian. Books he had always at command; for his mother, who

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contemplated with delight the progress of her son, with a wise liberality allowed him unlimited credit on her purse. But of this indulgence, as he knew that her finances were restricted, he availed himself no further than to purchase such books as were essential to his improvement.'—

'His name was long remembered at Harrow, with the respect due to his superior talents, and unrivalled erudition; and he was frequently quoted by Dr. Sumner, as the ornament of his school, and as an example for imitation. He had not only distinguished himself by the extent of his classical attainments, and his poetical compositions, but by the eloquence of his declamations, and the masterly manner in which they were delivered. In the varied talents which constitute an orator, Dr. Sumner himself excelled; and his pupil had equally benefited by his example and instruction. In the behaviour of Jones towards his school-fellows, he never exhibited that tyranny, which in the larger seminaries of learning is sometimes practised by the senior, over the younger students. His disposition equally revolted at the exercise or sufferance of oppression; and he early exhibited a mind, strongly impressed with those moral distinctions which he ever retained. Of the friendships which he contracted at school, many were afterwards cultivated with reciprocal affection; and among the friends of his early years, some still survive, who remember his virtues with delight, and deplore his loss.'

During his residence at Harrow, his most intimate friend among his school-fellows was the late Sir John Parnell; who, in a letter to Lady Jones, thus speaks of him:

'When I first knew him, about the year 1761, he amused himself with the study of botany, and in collecting fossils. In general, the same pursuits which gave employment to his mature understanding, were the first objects of his youthful attention. The same disposition formed the most distinguished features at an early, and at a late period of his life. A decision of mind, and a strict attachment to virtue, an enthusiastic love of liberty, an uniform spirit of philanthropy, were the characteristics of his youth, and of his manhood: he did no act, he used no expression, which did not justify these assertions.'

With regard to his early courtship of the Muses, we find that

'A collection of English poems, composed by Mr. Jones, at Harrow, was presented by him to his friend Parnell, in 1763. The first and longest of the collection, containing more than three hundred and thirty lines, is entitled Prolusions, and is a critique on the various styles of pastoral writers. This was written by Mr. Jones, at the age of fifteen, and is the original of the poem, which he afterwards published under the title of Arcadia.

'The variations between his first attempt and subsequent publication are very considerable. In his earliest composition, he makes Menalcas, who represents Theocritus, the father of pastoral poetry, adopt the language of Chaucer, as the only model he could take for a specimen of the English Doric. Spenser speaks in his own dialect, and, as the poet says,

Masks

Masks in the roughest veil the sweetest song.

' In the original essay, Mr. Jones gives the prize to Tityrus, or Virgil; but, in the latter, Theocritus divides the kingdom of Arcadia between Virgil and Spenser, and assigns to them his two daughters, Daphne and Hyla, by whom he understands the two sorts of pastoral poetry; the one elegant and polished, the other simple and unadorned, in both which Theocritus excels.'

We next attend Mr. Jones at the University; where his situation, says Lord T.,

' Did not at first correspond with his expectations. Under the tuition of a master, who saw with admiration his capacity and application, who was anxious to assist his exertions, and rewarded their success with unlimited applause, his ardour for learning had been raised to a degree of enthusiasm: at the University, he expected to find a Sumner or Askew, in every master of arts, and generally the same passion for literature, which he had himself imbibed. It was evident that such extravagant expectations must be disappointed; and from the public lectures, he derived little gratification or instruction: they were much below the standard of his attainments, and, in fact, were considered as merely formal; and instead of pure principles on subjects of taste, on rhetoric, poetry, and practical morals, *he complained* that he was required to attend dull comments on artificial ethics, and logic detailed in such barbarous Latin, that he professed to know as little of it as he then knew of Arabic. The only logic then in fashion was that of the schools; and in a memorandum written by himself, which is my authority for these remarks, I find an anecdote related of one of the fellows, who was reading Locke with his own pupils, that he carefully passed over every passage in which that great metaphysician derides the old system.'

After a residence of a few months at Oxford,

' His partiality for oriental literature began to display itself in the study of the Arabic, to which he was strongly incited by the example and encouragement of a fellow-student of great worth and abilities, who had acquired some knowledge in that celebrated language, and offered him the use of the best books, with which he was well provided. In acquiring the pronunciation, he was assisted by a native of Aleppo, who spoke and wrote the vulgar Arabic fluently, but was without any pretensions to the character of a scholar. Mr. Jones accidentally discovered him in London, where he usually passed his vacations, and prevailed upon him to accompany him to Oxford, under a promise of maintaining him there. This promise he was obliged exclusively to fulfil for several months, at an expence which his finances could ill afford, being disappointed in the hopes which he had entertained, that some of his brother collegians might be inclined to avail themselves of the assistance of the Syrian, and participate with him in the expence of his maintenance.

' The disgust expressed by Mr. Jones after his first introduction into the University soon subsided, and his time now passed with great satisfaction to himself. He found in it, all the means and opportunity

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nity of instruction which he could wish; and adopted that respectful attachment to it, which he ever after retained. His college tutors, who saw that all his hours were devoted to improvement, dispensed with his attendance on their lectures, alleging with equal truth and civility, that he could employ his time to more advantage. Their expectations were not disappointed: he perused with great assiduity all the Greek poets and historians of note, and the entire works of Plato and Lucian, with a vast apparatus of commentaries on them; constantly reading with a pen in his hand, making remarks, and composing in imitation of his favourite authors. Some portion of every morning he allotted to Mirza, whom he employed in translating the Arabian tales of Galland into Arabic, writing himself the translation from the mouth of the Syrian. He afterwards corrected the grammatical inaccuracies of the version, by the help of Erpenius and Golius.

'In the course of his application to this ancient language he discovered, what he never before suspected, a near connection between the modern Persic and Arabic, and he immediately determined to acquire the former. He accordingly studied it with attention in the only Persian grammar then extant; and having laboured diligently at the Gulistan of Sadi, assisted by the accurate but inelegant version of Gentius, and at the well chosen praxis at the close of Meninski's grammar, he found his exertions rewarded with rapid success.

'His vacations were past in London, where he daily attended the schools of Angelo, for the purpose of acquiring the elegant accomplishments of riding and fencing. He was always a strenuous advocate for the practice of bodily exercises, as no less useful to invigorate his frame, than as a necessary qualification for any active exertions to which he might eventually be called. At home, his attention was directed to the modern languages; and he read the best authors in Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese, following in all respects the plan of education recommended by Milton, which he had by heart; and thus, to transcribe an observation of his own, with the fortune of a peasant, giving himself the education of a prince.'

There being no immediate prospect of a fellowship, the pressure on the finances of his mother, occasioned by his residence at Oxford, induced him at the age of nineteen to accept the situation of tutor to Lord Althorpe, the present Earl Spencer, then only seven years old. This charge he undertook in 1765, and relinquished in 1770. He owed the appointment to Dr. Shipley, afterward Bishop of St. Asaph, and his future father-in-law.

The biographer informs us that Mr. Jones valued the accomplishments of a gentleman not less than those of a scholar; and that he not only took lessons from Angelo in fencing, and from Gallini in dancing, but was at the same time instructed in the exercise of the broad sword by a skilful Chelsea pensioner. While in the Spencer family, he had also opportunities of making several excursions to the Continent; of which he availed

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availed himself by perfecting his knowlege of the modern languages. These pursuits, besides the duty of fulfilling his charge, would have formed the whole history of an ordinary man in such a situation, but they constitute a very inconsiderable part of that of Mr. Jones; this period of his life being signalized by labours the most extraordinary, and such as were sufficient to immortalize him. Here it was that he composed his Commentaries on Asiatic Poetry, and his Persian Grammar, which were afterward published; and that, at the request of the king of Denmark, he undertook, completed, and published his French version of the life of Nadir Shah, from an Arabic manuscript.

The close of the year 1767, the second of his residence in this noble family,

"Was marked with an occurrence, which probably had a material influence on the determination of his future pursuits. From a motive of mere curiosity, he was prompted to peruse the little treatise of Fortescue, in praise of the laws of England; and, although he was more diverted with the simplicity of the Latin stile, than attracted by the subject, he felt so much interest in the work, as to study it with considerable attention. In the course of the reflections which it excited, he was naturally led to a comparison of the laws of England with those of other countries, and he marked with delight their uncontroverted claim to superiority over the laws of every other state, ancient or modern. Of this fact he acknowledged that he had never before entertained an idea. He was now qualified to appreciate with more accuracy, the merits and defects of the republican system of Greece and Rome, for which he had adopted a strong partiality, natural to an enthusiastic admirer of the orators and poets of those celebrated nations; and to examine their jurisprudence by a standard of comparison, which impressed his mind with a decided reverence for the institutions of his own country. He was not, however, regardless of the deviations in practice from the theoretical perfection of the constitution in the famous contested election at Northampton, of which he was an unwilling spectator.'

It is known to our readers that the Life of Nadir Shah was not a voluntary task, but that the ingenious translator was in a manner compelled to undertake it. In his apology for appearing as an author at so early a period, he remarks;

'If he had reflected on the little solid glory which a man reaps from acquiring a name in literature, on the jealousy and envy which attend such an acquisition, on the distant reserve which a writer is sure to meet with from the generality of mankind, and on the obstruction which a contemplative habit gives to our hopes of being distinguished in active life; if all, or any of these reflections had occurred to him, he would not have been tempted by any consideration to enter upon so invidious and thankless a career. *But*, as Tully says, '*he would have considered before he embarked, the nature and extent*

of

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of his voyage; now, since the sails are spread, the vessel must take its course.'

We mean not wholly to deny the justness of these reflections, but we must be allowed to observe that they give an *ex parte* view of the case; that they represent the unfavourable side of it; and that every profession, every occupation, nay every situation in life, may in this way be held forth to disadvantage. Surely authorship is not here fairly treated. To what else did this very eminent person owe the honors paid to him, the fame which he acquired, the civil distinction and wealth to which he raised himself? We own that it is not commonly the fate of authors to be thus successful: but it may be that their usual humble post is more the fault of the individuals, than that of their profession.

[*To be continued.*] Jo.

ART. II. *Mr.* Holcroft's *Travels from Hamburgh to Paris.*

[*Article concluded from p.* 126.]

MORALITY and immorality are words of extensive and seriously important meaning: but the application of them, in a general way, to the *pulchrum* and the *turpe* of human conduct, will contribute very little either to enlighten or to reform mankind. Loose and undefined declamations against the vices of any age or nation, though they may gratify the irritated feelings of the misanthrope, or may afford some pleasure to the man of virtue, from a benevolent hope in their good consequences, are never found by experience to produce any actual benefit. The traveller, who would institute a profitable inquiry into the comparative and moral state of countries, must therefore descend to particulars; must view the people, who are the the subject of his investigations, in their several attitudes and relations; must analyze opinions and prejudices; must attend to the different modes in which habits and manners are formed; and must separate the component parts, of which the great mass of the public national character is composed. On this plan, Mr. Holcroft proceeds in his moral delineation of the French people, whom he appears to have studied with a more sedulous care than any other of his countrymen; and for which reason, we think, his work is intitled to a more protracted attention than any book of Parisian travels that has hitherto claimed our notice. We believe that we do him justice, when we observe that he makes no attempt to amuse and flatter the pride of one nation at the expence of another; and that his strictures are as much intended for the benefit of the French

French as for the instruction of his own countrymen. Philanthropy and good nature are apparent in his censures; and he catches with pleasure at every symptom in the present manners and usages of France, that is indicative of a return to simplicity, good sense, and good taste.

The materials of some parts of Mr. Holcroft's Travels were collected and arranged, not in the streets and society of Paris, but in his study; and the chapters thus manufactured may subject him to the charge of some little book-making management. He may plead, however, in excuse for these historical researches, that it was proper, in his estimate of the French character, to advert to the origin of their different discriminating features, whether of sentiment or practice; and that, in this view, retrospection was as necessary as actual observation. His work would have been less expensive, had he been the mere journalist: but, in its present shape, it forms a more complete and satisfactory whole.

In the 2d volume, the author adverts to the state of duelling under Henry IV., and traces gallantry from that period, through the court and age of Louis XIV., to the present time. He considers the consequences of this passion with respect to love, marriage, and the decencies of social life. To exemplify his doctrine of 'the omnipotence of circumstances in forming all existing beings,' he minutely depicts the progress of education among the French, including the nursing and dressing of children, and follows them through the several stages of infancy and youth to manhood. After having considered how the individuals are formed for society, he next regards them as acting in that society. Here, national politeness, and the conduct of one individual to another, the manners of the populace, the state of religion, the character and influence of the government, the nature of the police, the recreations and amusements of the people, the prevailing taste, the state of science and the arts, and the tendency of the whole to render the community progressive or retrograde in true wisdom and virtue, are objects of his notice and delineation.

Such is the outline of Mr. H.'s undertaking, which he has laboured with much assiduity;—to what degree he has succeeded, we shall give our readers a farther opportunity of judging. On the subjects of conveniences, comfort, and neatness, he exhibits this contrast between England and France:

'Nations, like individuals, have their distinctive vanities; and the wealth of nations is exhausted in their gratification. I do not speak of the treasures entrusted to or exacted by governments; but of the collective mass of individual wealth.

'In England, the custom is fortunately established of seeking to gratify vanity by something like endless researches after the useful: but even this has its excess; the conveniences of life are so multi-

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plied that, though each piece of furniture, each contrivance may have its use, the limits of simplicity and good sense are invaded, and utensils themselves are, some of them, troublesome. The saving of labour, in objects the most trifling, is so generally encouraged, that habitual activity is benumbed, and the haughtiness of indolence nurtured: an Englishman must have a machine to spare the labour of his arm, if it be but to draw a cork. In this, as in most habits, there is exuberance; but there is likewise incalculable advantage.

'In France the very opposite habit is inordinate; the most common conveniences are, numbers of them, wanting: in French houses, some are lost, some are broken, some mislaid; and many have never been provided, or imagined. Instead of that profusion of utensils to which the English are accustomed, a thing so necessary as a pepper-box is only to be found at a few tables; if pepper be asked for, it is brought in a saucer, and is often sprinkled with the finger and thumb; nay a man runs some risk in many a reputable family of losing his dinner, if he do not bring a knife in his pocket: yet table spoons and heavy four pronged forks of silver are common to every decent family; and every person has a clean napkin at dinner, though all wipe their forks and dirty clasp-knives, that are never brightened, on their bread. A few of the fashionable and the wealthy are adopting as many of the English customs as they know, and as their manners will permit; and, in these families, knives and forks are changed with the plates: but the bulk of the people have never witnessed or heard of such a practice.

'In England, there is no master or mistress of a family who does not think it discreditable, if there be not something like agreement and unity, in the articles of furniture and dress, their arrangement, their cleanliness, and their whole appearance. In France, the inattention to such things is so general, that an Englishman is astonished at the discordancy. So strange is the assemblage of objects, finery and wretchedness are in such frequent contact, gilding and cobwebs, dark gateways and dirty staircases, leading to spacious apartments in which magnificence lies in disorder and neglect, these and the continual repetition of similar incongruities obtrude upon the man of observation an almost unvaried picture of grandeur and beggary.

'It is however highly gratifying to perceive that, great as these inconsistencies still are, they are diminishing. In the year 1783, they were so numerous and so offensive that I scarcely could credit what I saw. At that time, I have often walked on the terrace of the Tuileries, the place where magnificence and grandeur had most exerted themselves to excite admiration. The gardens, the statuary, and the architecture vied for pre-eminence: the *façade* of the place is several hundred yards in extent; and is decorated with porticoes, corridors, columns, pilasters, and every multiplied ornament to excite surprise: yet, at that time, from the windows of this palace were daily hung old shirts, patched stockings, stained and worn-out breeches, or whatever other object the persons who were allowed apartments there thought proper to press upon the public eye. No one noticed the practice: no one testified the least feeling of impropriety: it was but a repetition of what might be seen in every other part of the city.'

When

When the author glances at the manners of past ages through the medium of history, and compares them with the present, he perceives (or thinks that he perceives) some faint symptoms of amendment. He laments, however, that the arts of seduction are still too generally practised in France; though he reports the worst effects of those arts to be on the decrease. Yet, if "want of decency be want of sense," the French have indeed much to learn; and the exposure of their gallantry and indecorums may be of more service to them, than all the flattery which has been lavished on them as the *Great Nation*, and may warn others against a stupid imitation of vice under the imposing name of Polish and Accomplishment. The French are not now, as formerly, in the habit of uniting gallantry and devotion, or of converting a cast-off mistress into the *spouse of God*; so far, cant and hypocrisy are gone out of fashion: but the picture of the complaisance of modern French husbands, as given in the dramatic proverb of *the Two Friends*, with the subsequent remarks of the traveller, will convince the reader that virtue is still at a low ebb in Paris:

'The feelings that are common to husbands of the lower class in Paris it would be difficult to colour with great accuracy. Nothing is more usual than to say, of a married woman, such a man is her friend: *c'est l'ami de Madame:* which signifies her lover. I would not be understood to mean that this practice is absolutely general: on the contrary, though I dare not affirm, I hope and believe the number of wives faithful to their husbands is the greatest: yet what I have so frequently observed makes it with me exceedingly doubtful.

'On my first residence at Paris, I used to imagine the tales I heard were the tattle of scandal; but after repeated observation my opinion changed.

'A tradesman, with whom I was acquainted, unusually regular and sedate in his manners, and in the vigour of life, was married to a handsome woman: they had several children, and she had every appearance of being mild, orderly, and regular in her conduct; yet this woman too had her friend, who was a young Englishman. I have been in parties and on little excursions with the family; and, when this happened, the husband used to walk and converse with me; while the wife was always arm in arm, and generally at some distance, with this good family friend.

'Nothing can be a greater proof of supposed ill breeding than that of a husband, who should intrude upon and interfere with his wife in such affairs.'

We cannot but think that the author has entered too circumstantially into the subject of intrigue and indecencies: but, for the bold manner in which he has discussed it, he offers a kind of apology; though he does not wish to weaken by it the force of his remarks:

'The brief history (he says) of gallantry, which I have given, has been with an intention, not to calumniate, and degrade the French,

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nor to excite exultation or gratify vanity in the English, but, to stimulate inquiry into its consequences, and produce that just estimate which, that it has never yet been made, is a misfortune to all mankind. I repeat, for I wish to impress it upon the memory, that gallantry, as it is here proved to exist, is a black, a destructive, an abominable system of domestic treachery; atrocious in act, pernicious in effect; the origin of duels, disease, murders, and mischiefs too manifold for language to describe, or imagination to picture.'

Again he says;

'I have heard it maintained by Frenchmen, and I greatly fear with truth, that the number of public women, according to the population of the two cities, much exceeds in London that of Paris; and the reason they say is, that the practices of gallantry already described are so much better understood in the latter city! May the knowledge never spread! Of the two evils, great as is the least, it is better to suffer public prostitutes than that our wives, our sisters, and our daughters should be their avowed substitutes.'

From the subject of gallantry to that of good-breeding, the transition will be deemed natural. On the score of the latter, the French arrogate great superiority:

'When French ladies (says Mr. H.) meet Englishmen in society, they frequently are watchful to detect what they suppose to be ill breeding. A friend of mine was one evening sitting with his hands in his pockets, his legs at full length, and his neck resting on the back of his chair; that is, at thoughtless ease, but unsuspicious of giving offence. A French lady, observing him, whispered my wife—"*Mais regardez donc cet Anglois, Madame! Il faut avouer que ces Messieurs ne se gênent pas. Voyez si un François oserait se tenir comme ça devant les dames* *."

'This was the pure spirit of cavilling; for Frenchmen not only dare do such things, before ladies, but others that are both rude and indecent: some of them I shall enumerate under the head politeness; and shall only here observe that they make no scruple to pull out their white handkerchiefs bedaubed with snuff, to spit on the floor, and to stand with their hands concealed in front in a manner much too indelicate to describe. This is done in the politest companies, and by those who rank among the best bred men in France: in a word, the practice is or was general.'

An instance is also adduced, in which a young French coquette endeavoured to convict Mr. H. of inattention; and this incident provokes some general remarks on good and ill breeding:

'Kindness of heart is the essence of good breeding; and attention to others is one mode of testifying this kindness: but good breeding ought not to degenerate into insipid formalities, or display the affected

'* Look at that Englishman, Madam: it must be owned these gentlemen are free and easy! What Frenchman would dare to sit in that posture before ladies?'

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and apish flourishes of vanity: much less should it be exacted as an acknowledgment of superiority; which would render wisdom itself a slave to the frothy, the pert and the proud: if it do not flow from habitual urbanity, under no apprehension of giving offence, though desirous to please, neither obtrusive, exigent, nor servile, generally apt, though seldom alert, in active existence, yet only visible to its equals; if it be not this it is a counterfeit, exciting pity, or giving pain. Bows, salutations, the taking charge of cloaks, the reaching of chairs, and the handing of tea-cups, are the good-breeding of the great vulgar and small; it is their only currency, and this base coinage may have its use where the sterling is not to be had. Wherever there is real kindness of heart, if there be not good-breeding it is the failure of ignorance, and not of intention: while the parroted airs of the governess, the dancing school, and the fencing academy, are but the ridiculous efforts of stupidity, with all the supercilious pretensions of extraordinary acquirement and affected knowledge. The challenges thus thrown out, to demand admiration, are overlooked with a silent smile by common sense; as is the defiance of a bully by the brave.'

Before the traveller points to those traits in the conduct of the Parisians, which strike us as proofs of indelicacy, he reprobates false refinement, and combats the paradox that "the nicest people have the nastiest ideas."

'Few things are more truly ridiculous than the affectation of delicacy. When I hear a man talk of his *small clothes*, I imagine I am in company with a fool, or the son of a washer-woman. Real delicacy results from a thorough acquaintance with the usages of the world, which bids us carefully avoid offending those usages; and from chastened but unobtruding moral principles.

'I suppose it to be true that, had there never been vicious actions, there never would have been vicious intrepretations; and that comparisons, of delicacy or of decency, could not then have entered the thoughts. From this the wit of casuistry has inferred that the most delicate persons are the most indecent. The doctrine is absurd; for it is in direct contradiction with facts. Delicacy, without affectation, is seen most in those families whose conduct has the most order, good sense, and virtue; while our ears and eyes are insulted even in the open streets, by the profligate and the debauched.'

Instances are also adduced, in the names of streets, dresses, colours, and fashions, to prove that, if the French are not absolutely indecent, they are far indeed from being delicate. We shall subjoin a picture of French *feminality*, which will appear to the English reader highly indecorous:

'A gentleman related to me that he had some legal affairs to transact for a lady of fashion; and that, taking a lawyer with him, he one day went to consult with her on the business. She happened to be in her bath; but this did not cause the least delay: she desired them to be shown into the apartment where she was, ordered the servant to bring her pen, ink, and paper, and a board to put them upon, and she there sat up and wrote, and questioned and replied, with the same

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ease and familiarity as if she had been at her writing desk. I forgot to ask, though I have no doubt she was in a bathing dress: yet I question if, in England, the ladies of the very highest fashion would think proper to be seen, thus, with dishevelled hair, in the mermaid state, by men of mere business. I would not however be thought to affirm too much in their behalf.'

That it is no uncommon thing with French ladies of fashion and beauty to receive gentlemen while they are in the bath, we have often heard asserted: but we are inclined to believe that it is not the practice of women of real character.—The growing disuse of rouge is hailed by the author as a mark of the gradual ascendancy of good taste.

When Mr. Holcroft proceeds to the topic of French education, which he discusses in all its stages, various observations are offered that well merit attention. On the subject of the dress of children, he thus remarks:

'The habits of ages are not to be eradicated by the throes of a revolution; that earthquake in morals, which, while it sinks one mountain of abuses, casts up another.

'In dress there is indeed a general reform, as well in the child as the man; it approaches toward common sense. Infants are not now, in France, as often as they still are in Germany, so swaddled and bound up that they used actually to be reared upright, and placed like a broom in a corner. Neither have I ever seen the practice, which I have heard described, of suspending children by bandages under the arms against the wall; or by the waist to the ceiling, like stuffed crocodiles. The children of the poor, in the neighbourhood where we lived, were in general rationally, that is loosely and lightly, clothed; stockings excepted, which they wear gartered, and, as stockings on children must be, generally wet and dirty. But, instead of putting children on the floor, which is the true mode of teaching muscular action, and by which a child much the soonest learns to walk, the go-cart is still in fashion.

'It was but lately the common practice, when an infant was born, to bind it up in three swaddling cloths: they were called *trois langes*; one was of flannel, red or blue, and two were of linen about a foot wide each, and full three yards in length. On the head were also three *béguins* or caps; the undermost of flannel, the second of linen quilted with wool or cotton, and the third to hide them both: as soon as the legs were set at liberty, shoes and stockings were put on, and the latter gartered. Of the numbers who fell victims to heat and confinement of the limbs like this, no estimate can be made; but that absolute depopulation did not follow, and that the human race should continue to multiply in strength and numbers so considerable, is an irresistible proof of the pertinacity of the vital faculties, remembering that such modes of swaddling were once general. Of the corporeal improvement of the human form no man can doubt, who can but even remember what the race of men born in London was only five and thirty years ago, and examines what it is at present. I have

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heard it was then the opinion that population was maintained solely by adventurers from the country, and that the race of these adventurers was extinct in three generations.'

Not deceived nor repressed by the high-sounding classical names given to schools in France, since the Revolution, this Philosopher examines into the real merits of the new system of education, and his account of it is truly lamentable:

'The *Almanach National* is in parts dictated and wholly revised and approved by government; and from the statement which it gives, numerous important facts are incontrovertibly deduced: among them are the great paucity even of primary schools; the still much greater want of secondary schools, where nothing more is taught than, if so much as, that education which is bestowed in almost every parish in England; the disordered state of the higher seminaries of learning; and, more than all the rest, either the jealous fears or the busy despotism of government, all centering in the chief.

'If the nation be so ignorant as that every petty day school must be inspected, that every secondary, or grammar school must be watched by the prefect, that men must be sent annually to travel through the departments to superinted prefects, inspectors, and schools, and that the superintenders, including all under and all above them, must be superintended by the First Consul himself, who is the omnipotent reformer, in what a state must this actual ignorance be? Should it be answered, it is but the jealousy, the presumption, and the despotism of government, will that be a more favourable picture of the actual state of knowledge?

'I once again protest I deprecate as truly as I despise, not only the attempt, but, the very supposition of any desire to degrade the people of France. If I do them injustice, it is not done wilfully. The sole end I have in view is to excite all men to inquiry; and more than others, on this occasion, the French themselves: as it more nearly concerns themselves, and as there are among them men whose powers of mind are of the first order, and of whose patriotic intentions and virtues no doubt can be entertained. Let them rouze from their present lethargy; not into any of the petty schemes of a confusedly indignant mind, impotently attempting to root up evil by dispossessing misguided individuals of power; but, by the undaunted inquiry into and persevering publication of facts, whoever may be the individual they may implicate, or whatever the nation they may be thought to dishonour. The knowledge of these, being disseminated, will be more potent in the correction of abuses than any destruction of the vicious monopolies of power; which must moulder away, in proportion as knowledge shall increase and morals improve. Where ignorance among the multitude prevails, tyranny can only succeed to tyranny. Exceptions of individuals in power, good and ill, will exist; but between the virtues of the nation and the virtues of the government there ever must be an intimate relation.'

Cheerfulness is supposed to belong to the French people in an eminent degree: but Mr. H. disputes their claim to this

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envied pre-eminence, and ascertains the melancholy fact that the crime of suicide is more frequent in France than in England, notwithstanding the influence attributed to our (present) black month of November.

'Of their *gaieté de cœur*, gay or lively hearts, they are continually vaunting: but are they really so gay as they profess to be? What is it they understand by gaiety? Is a propensity to talk and to trifle a certain sign of cheerfulness?

'If they possess a calm yet habitually cheerful mind, there are signs of gloominess every where surrounding them for which it will be difficult to account.'—

'Discontent is no feature of gaiety: yet discontent is the certain result of want of order and economy; and I have never in other nations discovered this feeling so frequently as in the physiognomy of the French, when reading the countenance at rest, or of passengers that were solitary. They readily smile, but rarely laugh; and when the features are motionless, they are often marked with irritability, or restless dissatisfaction.

'The encounter of wretchedness does not excite to gaiety; ragged and dirty clothing, meagre frames, squalid countenances, women and old age tottering under burthens, and misery continually met in a variety of forms, cannot contribute to cheerfulness: by being so frequently seen, the emotions thus excited are so enfeebled as scarcely to be felt; still however they have their effect, which is far indeed from cheering to the heart.'

The account which follows of *la Morgue*, or of the place in Paris where dead bodies are carried to be owned, is horrible and afflicting; and Mr. H. reports, from information on which he can depend, 'that, including all France, the number of suicides is from two to three per day, or five in two days.' Of the total of suicides in Paris, it is impossible to obtain a correct account; the reason for which is shocking, and the inference does not speak in favour of French felicity:

'The bodies exposed at *la Morgue* are most of them brought from *Saint-Cloud*; the distance to which by water must be above three, perhaps four miles. At the bridge of *Saint-Cloud*, the fishermen nightly spread their nets; and in the morning, with the fish, these bodies are drawn up: but, as an old inhabitant of *Saint-Cloud*, whom I strictly questioned on the subject, assured me, the nets were only suffered to be down a stated number of hours, according to the season; certainly not upon an average half the day; and, in proof of what he said, observed to me that this regulation must take place, or the navigation of the river would be impeded. Hence, by the most moderate calculation, the number of bodies that escape the nets must at least equal the number of those that are caught.

'I was told that government had then lately refused the accustomed fee to the fishermen, for each corpse they brought; and that they would not continue to drag up the dead bodies, affirming that the

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the money they had before received, was insufficient to pay the damage their nets had sustained.

'I know that it has long been the practice for government to adopt any measure, by which it imagines it can gain popularity: but how such an end might be obtained by these means is more than I can divine.

'After proofs like these, what shall be said concerning that gaiety of heart, which the natives and the writers of France so often affirm they possess and to so high a degree? If it be a feeling of short duration, suddenly taking birth and as suddenly killed, produced by trifling causes and liable to end in such fatal despondency, it is a habit of mind which, instead of meriting their praise, ought to excite their most serious attention to reduce it to reason. True cheerfulness is more robust: that mind only can enjoy serenity which, added to virtuous intention, has the sober and tranquillizing habits of order; and which, willing at all times to partake of pleasure, has the patience, first to inquire what is the cost, and what the consequence.'

How judicious is this last remark! Thoughtlessness and frivolity do not constitute enjoyment. A considerate and virtuous people may seem to superficial observers to be grave: but their happiness is more genuine and permanent than that which springs from trifling and irrational pursuits;—from pursuits which, by banishing reflection, render men strangers to mental tranquillity, and often plunge them from transient pleasures to irremediable despair.

A multitude of anecdotes are related, characteristic of the Gallic nation: but we must abstain from transcribing them, to make room for Mr. Holcroft's account of the Church since it has been re-united to the State; and particularly his description of that individual who has engrossed to himself all power and authority in both. Respecting the former, this single extract must suffice:

'Under politicians so profound, the church has been wrested from the precarious patronage of the pious; and once more joined to the state. What the sum of the benefits may be, which the state is to receive from religion and religion from the state, time must determine: present appearances augur but faintly. That lordly host, whose voices combined inspired even majesty with tremendous awe, and so frequently drove ignorance frantic, is now replaced by twelve parochial churches, one for each municipality, and twenty-seven chapels of ease, for the catholic worship.

'The protestants are allowed three chapels; the total for catholic and protestant is forty-two; and beside these there is at present no other place of religious worship in Paris.

'And are these churches and chapels duly and respectfully attended?

'This I made a constant object of inquiry.

'As masses, private and public, vespers, and other ceremonies are performing through perhaps one half of the day, the churches are

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open; and you seldom can enter them but a few scattered beings are seen, kneeling round this or that petty side altar, and interceding, if words muttered can be called intercession, with the holy Virgin. But these solitary beings are, much the greatest number of them, old women: the young of either sex are seldom there; except brought to high mass by their parents, or attracted by some ceremony, or church festival.

'At high mass itself, the old are much more numerous than the young, and the women than the men.

'In proportion as the crowd is attracted, the congregation is disorderly. There are no seats, a very few within the choir excepted, for persons in office; but, the choir being open, a multitude of rush bottomed chairs, exceedingly rude, and generally old and dirty, stand ready to be hired; I forget if at a halfpenny or a penny each; and this is a source of church revenue.

'At every part of the service, as well in sermon time as during mass, numbers are in motion: people come and go, make the church their thoroughfare, are silent or talkative, dirty or clean, and act with the most perfect indifference with respect to time, place, or other circumstance.

'Behind the preacher a prompter is seated; who, as is the practice at the theatre, whispers the word, if the actor blunders in his part.

'During the sermon, the superintendents of the chairs make the round of their customers, to collect the sous.

'If the people are thus ignorant and restless, incapable, from habit, temper, and thoughtlessness, of decent order, the priests themselves surely afford them neither countenance nor example.

'The priests themselves have the perfect appearance of machines, that proceed through a regular absolute clock-work set of motions, without any power of variety, or token of feeling. Various parcels of them are performing various ceremonies, in different parts of the church, at the same time. Here, in the choir, it is high mass: before an altar, yonder on the left, some private mass for a departed soul is hurried over: by the side of this, or opposite as it may happen, some other ceremony of marriage, baptism, or burial, is performing. In another compartment a school is kept; and the pupils have, not only the ghostly and mundane admonitions of the priest their teacher, by which to profit, but, the whole scene before them for contemplation and instruction.

'Would you then have the world believe that a body of men, still held in veneration by a great part of France, and assuming even heavenly sanctity, are but the exhibitors of shows; which can only amuse children, while they utterly disgrace wisdom and traduce virtue?'

We shall now shift the scene from the state religion of Bonaparte, to Bonaparte himself; and, as Mr. Holcroft has drawn the portrait of this extraordinary man with singular spirit as well as truth of character, we shall indulge our readers with a copious transcription from this part of his work. It requires not a ghost from the grave to tell us that 'ambition, and not the

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the love of man, is the despotic passion in the mind of Bonaparte,' and that 'to him all means are good can he but gain the end in view:' but, when it is considered that he has so far succeeded in gratifying this all-devouring passion, as to dictate to popes, tread on the neck of kings, and to become in such a manner identified with Europe as to appear the only arbiter of her fate, it is of importance to study the physiognomy of his mind, to unfold its qualities, and to advert to the circumstances which fostered his evil habits, and indelibly impressed them on his character. The vices of Bonaparte are thus traced to their source:

'It is the turn and concurrence of circumstances that give the powers of man their direction, stamp his character, and reconcile him to courses of action; such, even, as he may have once held in abhorrence. In all the ardour of youth, when the intemperate imagination knew not where to rest, before principles had been fixed by experience, yet not till after a burning thirst of fame had been excited in him, Bonaparte found that dangerous engine, that corrupting agent, that implement of human misery, an army, at his command; prompt to effect whatever purpose his rapid genius should conceive. He soon discovered the necessity there was to give that colouring to events that might produce the effects intended: to conceal, to deceive, to fix the attention on false points, to flatter peasants, to speak to princes in the lofty tone of menace, to spur the soldier to attack by the hopes of plunder, to hang him afterward for the crime, to promise friendship to the vanquished, and then to raise contributions and strip them of all they esteemed most precious; these soon became the common-place daily occurrences of his life. Oh, had his genius received another direction, had he been impelled with no less force into the paths of wisdom and benevolence, what a blessing to the world would he have been!

'In Egypt, he found a race much more ignorant, more depraved, and therefore still more addicted to the arts of deceit, than in Italy; and he bent all his powers to the task of overcoming them, in every manner. Could they fight? He conquered them as well in valour as in sagacity. Could they mislead, lie, and wear the mask of hypocrisy? Even in this they were not his equals.

'Still his mighty mind, occasionally, gave public proofs of the warnings and the impulses it received from truth: to the man of discrimination, there are passages in his state papers that show with what force it struck him; and prove his momentary grandeur of thought. To this hour, changed as he gradually has been, and loaded as his horizon is with the blackest clouds of splenetic ambition, it still now and then emits a transient beam.

'But the most fatal of all the circumstances, which have unfitted him for the task he has assumed to himself, which is no less than that of governing Europe, is that he has been habituated to the command of armies.

'To move a multitude, so that some great end may be atchieved, it is necessary that not a man among them, the commander excepted,

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should have any will, any power of consideration, any impulse or motion, but that which he receives.

'Experience having proved, to the chief, that he is capable of so effectually directing such a mass as that mankind repeatedly have regarded with astonishment the combinations of the individual, which have produced these wonders, he entertains in himself no doubt of his decided superiority to all other men: he conceives himself to be little less than infallible, holds his own views and opinions in veneration, and cherishes the rapturous vision of giving the word of command to states, and of exciting amazement still much greater throughout the world.

'While thus he dreams, nothing is more easy than the imaginary reforms he is to effect; nothing more simple than the means; nothing more wonderful than that they had not been effected long before.

'Accustomed to gain the grandest advantages by secrecy of plan, celerity of action, and those stratagems that best can mask and mislead, the same habits remain, and the same means are adopted, when the conqueror seizes on the rule of states as when he sends forth his cohorts to the plunder of cities, and the capture of provinces. He alone must project; he alone must command; reward and punishment must be at his sole disposal: no community, no single creature must act but as he wills. That to make his will known is impossible, that it varies in himself from day to day, that men cannot resign their intellect, cannot resist the impulses of habits and the decisions of the judgment, and that the task of regulating the actions of millions by the will of an individual is the most extravagant and absurd of attempts, are truths of which he has no knowledge, or has lost all recollection.

'Memory cannot conjure up, nor can sagacity divine all the disadvantageous propensities, which the Chief Consul brought with him into office: these have been so aggravated, by circumstances which he did not foresee, by difficulties abroad, opposition at home, the abject flatteries of adulation, the justice of censure, the scurrility of abuse, the impossibility of enforcing obedience to all his commands, and the mass of resistance which he had assured himself he should find so feeble, that they have fixed in his mind evil habits of such force and obstinacy, that they are beyond the hope of cure.'

The treachery of this hero at the commencement of his victorious career is exhibited in the following anecdote:

'When Bonaparte first came to Milan, professing himself the deliverer of a once great people, but now and long since miserably enchained by priestcraft and petty despotism, those who earnestly desired the emancipation and the happiness of their country, received him with open arms. One of them, a Milanese nobleman of great influence, devoted his whole means and power to the cause which he supposed the French sincerely intended to promote; and for that purpose in giving aid to Bonaparte, by whom he was then treated with the most flattering attention.

'This nobleman had none but virtuous motives for his conduct; and he was too soon convinced that it was not for the cause of free-

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dom, which Bonaparte and the armies of France fought: the avarice of individuals, the plunder of rich and poor, and the worst of motives, which selfishess, egotism, and national vanity could inspire, were daily more and more appearent.

'After some reverse of fortune, which the French sustained in Italy, Bonaparte once more came to Milan; and the indignant patriot, instead of again promoting the views of the conqueror, openly upbraided him with his want of good faith, his total dereliction from the cause of freedom, and with the atrocities committed or countenanced by him. The affront was unpardonable: to reprove a man who had armies at his command, though it showed a noble and a virtuous fortitude, the loyal Milanese soon found was a fatal step: Bonaparte caused him to be seized, put him under a guard, and sent accusations of him to the Directory, accompanied by pretended proofs that he was a traitor to freedom and to France. The end of this tragedy was the death of the Italian: he was shot; and the passions of his enemy were shewn to be dangerous to the present, and ominous to the future.

'This account I had from a man of rank and honour, an Italian, who assured me he absolutely knew all that he had related to be true.'

According to the manner of Lavater, Mr. Holcroft has studied the physiognomy of the present despot of France; and subsequent events prove how accurately, and with what just indignation, he read his purposes:

'I have several times been close to his person: his stature is diminutive, his complexion sallow, and his physiognomy bears those marks that denote the labours of his mind: it is care worn; but it is also susceptible of great variety. From his atrabilious complexion, choler might be certainly predicted; but, from the sedateness of his eye, not of that sudden and impetuous kind to which he is so very subject.'—

'There are various traits, public and private, that discover Bonaparte to have attempted to copy Alexander, while he was in Egypt, Cæsar during his Italian campaigns, and Charlemagne since he has assumed to himself the office and the powers of a ruler.

'When traversing the sands of Egypt and Syria, he did not forget the Libyan deserts: Alexander was then his model.

'He placed a large statue of Cæsar, allowed to be of excellent workmanship, fronting his apartments in the Tuileries; that he might have it in daily contemplation.

'Since the addition of Helvetia and the Cisalpine Republic, the power of Charlemagne, extending over Europe, and his imperial dignities, have incessantly haunted his imagination. Consul for life is a title so poor that it appears to have become intolerable to thought. Need I insist on the imbecility with which he has aped the royal state?'—

'Between the dwarfish form of the man and his enormous arrogance, there is a disparity too preposterous for feeling to rid itself of; except by laughter. Yet how suddenly is this emotion checked, by the

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the remembrance of the general destruction in which he endeavours to involve mankind. Is it not miserable to reflect that the paltry, the frothy, the despicable thing called vanity, raging in a being in itself so impotent, should be the cause of such desolation?'

After having displayed the vanity, passionate temper, unfeeling cruelty, and other traits which are apparent in the conduct of Bonaparte, Mr. H. endeavours to appreciate the precise value of the whole evidence:

'To sum up with accuracy the contradictory character of this Chief Consul, this man of strange fortunes, this minion of many centuries, this miraculous progeny of Intellect and Chance, is a task to which I am inadequate.

'There are two parties, in direct contradiction to each other: and both of them equally violent in assertion. One set of men attribute to him every human excellence: to them, he is not a man, but a deity: another will not allow he ever possessed eminence of talent, discovered a single virtue, or performed one action that can be called great.

'Let those, who affirm he foresaw all that has been and might be accomplished, planned all that he has atchieved, and with power little less than omnipotent insured military conquest and commanded civil triumph, let these partisans inquire whether a mind so capacious could have been betrayed into acts so many of which are puerile, so many more are absurd, and a still greater number are malevolent and destructive?

'The nature of true greatness has ever been and ever will be beneficent. If his plans were so truly profound, would not his means be more certain, his course more even, and his end more secure? His taciturnity in private appears to be pride; but, in his public acts, his loquacity is too great, I ought to say too pert, to be tremendous. Power, such as he and his partisans would have the world believe he possesses, would better understand itself; would act in silence and strike in the dark: it would pursue the even tenor of its way, and disdain to vapour, or to sooth. Of such dwarfish artifice it would have no need. The excesses of the passions rob men of their sound judgment; and render them base, malignant, and little. Of the passions of the Chief Consul, and their excesses, there is unhappily no want of proof.

'To those, who will not allow him any one great quality, what shall be answered? Let them look into history, and find the man under whose real or apparent command actions so numerous, and so great, have been performed, and he, the commander, a man of feeble mind, irresolute in his conduct, and inconsistent in his plans. Let them scrutinize the powers of man, and prove, if it be possible, from fact or from deduction, how it should happen in times so dreadfully contentious, that debility could obtain and preserve the rule; could conquer enemies abroad, subvert rivals in power at home, profit by foreign and intestine broils, overawe or reconcile factions, change the capricious destinies of a capricious people to that which despotism calls order, and establish a new dynasty, which, in ages of greater ignorance, would long have continued permanent and beyond controul.

'Truth

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'Truth is always found between the extremes. Bonaparte is an extraordinary man, who has lived in still much more extraordinary times. The grand events of these times were many of them military; so, as it happened, was his education, and so were his propensities. Such was the fortuitous favour of circumstances that they caused him to appear a prodigy. A first campaign elevated him to the rank of a hero, the second showed him a god: he seemed to command events: in reality, they commanded him; they were his creator.

'Early habits had powerfully concurred to fit him for the future accidents under which he became placed: and this pre-disposition, and these accidents, were further aided by a mind of such ardour, and of such restless and prolific ambition, that he has been hurried through the various gradations which similar minds have travelled; and does and will only differ from them in similarity of fate as far as circumstances have varied and shall hereafter vary.

'Sallow complexion, length of face, a pointed nose, a projecting chin, and prominent cheek bones have distinguished the countenances of fanatics and persecutors. Fanatics and persecutors were often men of powerful minds, but violent passions; and between such men and Bonaparte, allowing for times and circumstances, in physiognomy, in talents, and in manner of acting, there is great resemblance.'

The vastness of this man's ambition, combined with the wonderful extent of his power, may seem to justify in us most terrific anticipations: but Mr. H.'s subsequent reflections on the threatened Invasion of Britain by France will serve, if good sense can avail, to dissipate these fears. It is his opinion that 'let the impossibility be supposed that Bonaparte, with all the armed force of France, were now in England, dreadful as the encounter would be, if the sound arguments that facts afford, if physical force and mental powers be justly estimated, Bonaparte must either find a miraculous escape, a prison, or a grave.'

Here we shall close our extracts; for, after Bonaparte and the Invasion, how flat and tame must be accounts of *fêtes* and processions; of theatrical embellishments, of singers, dancers and musicians, of statues and pictures, of libraries and gardens, &c. &c. &c.! We would not insinuate, however, that the traveller ceases to entertain, as he descends to inferior subjects. He is amusing and instructive to the last; his moral delineations are given with strength of colouring; and both to us when employed in studying the French, and to the French when studying themselves, his researches and observations may be eminently serviceable.

Besides the vignettes occasionally given as tail-pieces to some of the chapters, and which display objects illustrative of the work, we are presented in the folio atlas with large copper-plate engravings (measuring 25 inches by 15½) representing—the South view of the Old and New Louvre

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Louvre—the Mint and Façade of the Louvre—Entrance of *les Champs Elysées*, and *la Place de la Concorde*—The Military School and the Church of the Invalids—The Elysian Fields, distant Gardens of the Tuileries, New Bridge, *Quai d'Orsai*, and Palace of the *Corps Legislatif*—View of *la Place de la Concorde*—Garden and West front of the Tuileries—Garden of the Tuileries—Palace of the Tuileries facing *la Place du Carrousel*—The Luxembourg, with the Gardens—View of Paris from the South Boulevard—View of Paris from Mont-Martre.

In speaking of these decorations, Mr. Holcroft compliments the spirit and liberality of his publisher, as meriting greater applause than he can bestow; and we have no disposition to call in question the sincerity of this praise. We are assured that, excepting those of the New and Old Louvre, the plates have been engraved after drawings made at Paris by a French artist, under Mr. H.'s direction, and that every part of them has been rendered subject to truth. The fidelity of the representations is a great merit: but we lament that some of the engravings are so coarsely executed, that the artist deems it prudent to withhold his name.

A distinct description is given of each plate. In that which is explanatory of the view of Paris from Mont Martre, it is mentioned as deserving remark 'that the number of spires, and turrets, which in such views have a highly picturesque effect, is by no means so great in Paris as in London. Domes indeed are multiplied; but the single dome of St. Paul's, as is evident from the view of Paris in this plate, has a grandeur which all of them cannot equal.'

Errors occur in the writing at the bottom of the plates; and various errata are observable in both volumes of the work; which the author ascribes to its having been wholly *dictated*, a method no doubt liable to literal mistakes.

ART. III. *Cases of Small-Pox subsequent to Vaccination*, with Facts and Observations, read before the Medical Society at Portsmouth, March 29, 1804. Addressed to the Directors of the Vaccine Institution. By William Goldson, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, London. 8vo. pp. 71. 1s. 6d. Highley.

AFTER the almost universal adoption of vaccine innoculation, not only throughout Europe but in various other parts of the globe, it must appear a matter of surprise that a pamphlet should now issue from the press, professing to contain facts which disprove its powers as a preventive of Small-pox. That such facts should be brought forwards at an *early* period of its introduction

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introduction was not surprizing. The feelings of individuals were little disposed to yield their assent to the propriety of a practice so irreconcileable to analogy; and it was only by the most extensive series of experiments, ever perhaps made on any subject, that all respectable opposition to Cow-pox was at length subdued. Cases have frequently occurred, in which small-pox was stated to have prevailed after successful vaccine inoculation: but such cases were in general so incorrectly given, or had so much direct or internal evidence against them, that they could not bear that minute investigation to which they occasionally gave rise. Those which we are now to notice come, however, from so respectable a quarter, and are stated with so great an appearance of candour, that we have no difficulty in recommending them to the particular attention of the practitioner, who feels himself, as the friend of humanity, interested concerning a practice which is of the greatest importance to mankind.

The author does not present himself as decidedly hostile to Cow-pox: but he has met with cases in which it appeared to him, and many other practitioners, that Small-pox had unequivocally occurred after successful vaccination; and he is therefore disposed to infer that the preventive powers of Cow-pox, instead of being permanent, extend only to a certain period, after which the body recovers its susceptibility to Small-pox. This period he supposes must vary with the constitution, but, in the cases mentioned by him, it did not exceed three years. He therefore recommends that the discussion, concerning the laws by which Cow-pox is regulated, should be resumed, and the validity of his conclusion examined, by submitting to the test of variolous inoculation such patients as had been vaccinated more than three years ago.

The correctness of the general conclusion, with regard to the period during which Cow-pox may ensure the body against variolous influence, and the accuracy of the particular facts from which this conclusion is deduced, stand on different and independent grounds; for though the facts may be undoubted, and the inferences on the nature of particular cases be undeniable, it by no means follows that the author's hypothesis is on that account founded on truth. The cases which are here stated have made a considerable impression on the public mind; and it is with very good reason that the examination required by Mr. Goldson has been undertaken in several quarters. Whatever may be the conviction of professional individuals respecting the necessity of this examination at the present period, we are decidedly of opinion that the public feeling is not to be treated lightly, but that any examinations calculated

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calculated to remove plausible objections should be instituted, and stated with candour. Since evidence cannot be too much multiplied, where it can be procured, as in the present instance, in an easy, safe, and effectual way, it should be zealously sought.

However improbable, and however contradictory to many well ascertained facts, we may consider the opinion entertained by the present author, on the inefficacy of Cow-pox in preventing Small-pox, after a certain period, we deem it right to leave the question which he agitates on this subject, to be decided by the additional evidence to which it has given rise; and we shall therefore now confine ourselves to a report of the cases from which his inferences are deduced.

The first case is that of a Child which was inoculated with variolous matter two years after having had Cow-pox. Seven days subsequent to the inoculation, six or seven eruptions appeared on the child's body, which did not suppurate, but in four days terminated in a warty scurf.

The second case is nearly similar to the first.—Eruptions occurred after exposure to variolous contagion, more than three years subsequently to successful vaccination. These eruptions remained about five days, and never suppurated.

Mr. G. appears to be extremely anxious to prove that these eruptions were actually variolous: but to his conclusions we can by no means accede; and we think that he and his friends were by much too hasty in forming their opinions, when they ventured, in both cases, so soon after the appearance of the eruption, to give a decision on its nature. Considering the similarity between Chicken-pox and Small-pox, during the first few days of those complaints, we cannot regard it as being a proof of discretion, to hazard a judgment on a doubtful point where the evidence was so defective.

The third case is of more consequence; and, as it merits particular consideration, we shall give it in the author's own words:

'In the latter end of January, eighteen hundred and one, I vaccinated an infant, the daughter of Mr. Luscombe, keeper of the gaol in Portsmouth. The progress of the arm was extremely regular, and carried with it every mark of absorption. The child was restless, and somewhat feverish, about the eighth and ninth days. It seemed altogether as much indisposed as children of that age generally are.

'Matter was taken from the pustule early on the ninth day, which I used on a child who had the disease nearly in the same manner; and has since been in situations, where it must have taken the Small Pox, if the constitution had been susceptible of receiving it. Mr. Meritt, of Portsmouth, likewise vaccinated a child with matter from the same source.

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source. The pustule, and consequent symptoms in this case, were equally well defined.

'In fact I never entertained any doubt of its having properly taken effect; the arm shewing at the time, and until the present moment, marks of the pustule sufficiently strong and satisfactory. And it is perfectly in my recollection, that when some alarm was excited by the case of the marine at Haslar, somewhat more than a year after, the parents wishing to have her inoculated, I advised them to the contrary, saying, that "if there were any efficacy in the Cow Pox, she never would suffer from the Small Pox, having undergone the disease so decidedly."

'This opinion seemed to be verified, not only to my own satisfaction, but that of the friends, some time after. For on the tenth of April, eighteen hundred and three, I inoculated another of their children, which they chose rather to have done with variolous matter. The disease could not occur more favourable to my design of infecting the other child, if possible, than it did; as it produced near three hundred well maturated pustules.

'By my desire, which met the wishes of the parents, the children were kept constantly together. They were alternately suffered to sleep in the same cradle. And when the cap was taken from the head of one, it was constantly put upon the other, the same cap being used through the whole of the contagious period of the disease, without any effect whatever.

'On Monday the 13th ult. (Feb. 1804.) I was desired to call at the house, but being from home at the time, I did not go until the following morning. They then told me, that the child had the Small Pox. This I discredited, supposing it impossible, as she had so decidedly resisted infection before. I was surprized however to find their account correct, upwards of a hundred eruptions appearing in different parts of the face, body and extremities; several of which were *pustular*, and well advanced towards maturation.

'Not having been called early enough to witness the beginning and progress of the disease, I was the more particular in my inquiries. This I found was the fourth day of the eruption; she was taken ill on the Wednesday evening preceding, complaining of sickness, pain in the head and back, accompanied with considerable fever. On Thursday and part of Friday, she continued nearly the same. Supposing it to arise from cold, the mother was not alarmed, but gave her some diluting drink, and kept her in bed. About Friday noon she began to be better, but not totally free from fever. On Saturday morning she was perfectly recovered, but while she was dressing, a few eruptions were perceived in her face, neck and shoulders, but were not much attended to at the time. On Sunday the number increased, and still more came out on Monday morning. They now began to consider them as something more than pimples. For the first time they suspected Small Pox. In this they were justified, from variolous infection being in the school; two or three other children having taken it, one of which died, in a confluent sort under my care soon after. This induced them to send for me.'

Some

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Some doubts were entertained with regard to the propriety of considering this as a genuine case of Small-pox, from the pustules going off on the 7th day: but those doubts were removed by the appearance of variolous pustules in four cases which were inoculated from it. These pustules maturated, and, in three of the cases, went off on the 7th day, and in the fourth on the 9th day.

Another case, of a kind nearly similar to the last, is stated from the practice of a friend. Small-pox inoculation, one year after vaccination, produced on the 11th day an eruption of a few pustules, one only of which (on the arm) suppurated: but from this pustule matter was taken, which produced Small-pox, as is stated, in a satisfactory manner. On this case, however, we would observe that the statement of it is not sufficiently particular, to make it an object of distinct consideration; and that it is besides not improbable that the pustule on the arm might have been produced by an unintentional touch of the lancet, during inoculation, and that it might thus have been a primary one.

To the third case, there seems to be no reasonable ground of objection; and we are therefore compelled to consider it as a distinct instance of Small-pox occurring after vaccine inoculation had taken effect. We are not disposed to doubt the accuracy of Mr. Goldson's report of this case, nor to consider him as likely to have erred in his conclusion, that the Cow-pox inoculation had completely succeeded; and therefore, without entering farther into his views on the subject, we shall only remark that an occasional occurrence, such as that which we have now mentioned, can very little affect the value of vaccination. Several unquestionable instances are recorded, in which Small-pox has occurred a second time; and it cannot be expected that this may not also be the case with Cow-pox. The value which the latter possesses, as a preventive of Small-pox, must depend on the comparative frequency of such occurrences; and it is desirable that the attention of the candid practitioner should be directed to ascertain this very important point.

As we shall soon have occasion to lay before our readers, some experiments made with the view of ascertaining the truth of the author's hypothesis, that the Cow-pox only renders the body unsusceptible of Small-pox influence for a limited time, we shall now only observe that he appears to us to have acted with great propriety, in calling the attention of medical men to a farther investigation of this singular disease; which cannot but have a tendency to increase our knowlege of its nature, and the laws by which it is governed, as well as to remove those

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those unfavourable impressions on the public mind, which partial and erroneous statements are so likely to create.

Several minor particulars in this pamphlet we feel it unnecessary to notice.

Yell.

ART. IV. *An Answer to Mr. Goldson;* proving that Vaccination is a permanent Security against the Small-Pox. By John Ring, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons in London. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Murray.

THIS is a very singular performance. The author has distinguished himself for his services in the cause of vaccination: but, in the present instance, he appears to us to have overlooked the interest of this noble discovery, and to have deviated from the path which candour and philosophy prescribe for the investigation of truth. The public may be amused, but will neither be instructed nor convinced, by misplaced attempts at wit and humour; while they will be inclined to suspect some concealed and radical defect in principle, where examination and inquiry do not receive every degree of encouragement. They have a right to expect, in a matter in which they are so deeply interested as the new inoculation, that their doubts and fears, however they may have been produced, should be satisfied and removed; and we cannot think that it will increase their estimation of Dr. Jenner's discovery, to hear the mode recommended by a respectable practitioner, for ascertaining some important particulars relating to it, treated with contempt and ridicule.

Considering the ease and safety, with which Mr. Goldson's advice to inoculate with variolous matter some of the more early cow-pox patients, may be adopted, we cannot help expressing our surprise that so ready a method of removing the impression produced by the Portsmouth cases should not be deemed worthy of adoption by the present author. Mr. Ring, indeed, goes so far as to consider any such experiments as highly disgraceful; though we have no other reason assigned for the use of so harsh an epithet, than that he conceives them to be unnecessary. He admits, however, that such experiments were required at an early period of vaccine inoculation, in order to ascertain its utility; and he still considers it as justifiable to put patients to the test of variolation, at their own particular request, or that of their friends. Is not this to admit the propriety of satisfying doubts when doubts may have by any means been excited? and is it disgraceful to institute experiments on a large scale, to confirm the utility of vaccine inoculation, when such trials were extensively and safely

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made in the infancy of the practice; and when we are told by the author himself that they are indispensible, consistently with the least regard to character, if patients require a test of their safety? Mr. Ring cannot surely regard the insertion of variolous matter, subsequently to successful vaccine inoculation, as attended with danger; otherwise, he could not, with any regard to humanity, authorize the employment of this test, even at the desire of patients or their friends, when he admits that to have recourse to such an experiment, with a conviction of its danger, is a crime. The inexpediency of ever inoculating with variolous matter, in order to determine whether the constitution has been rendered unsusceptible of small-pox, is but feebly supported by Mr. Ring. Not a particle of evidence in confirmation of his opinion is adduced from what has occurred since the introduction of cow-pox; though it is well known that, at one period, such a test was very frequently employed. Two cases, which occurred forty years ago, are, it is true, mentioned from Dr. Buchan, in which an eruption was produced by the insertion of variolous matter, in two persons who had gone through small-pox. In one of these cases, the eruption gave rise to a general mortification and to death, and in the other to a serious indisposition. The extreme rarity, however, of such occurrences, and the absence of any disadvantages produced by inoculation with small-pox matter, subsequently to cow-pox, would favour the supposition that there existed, in the cases adduced, a peculiarity of constitution which cannot affect our reasoning in ordinary circumstances. If we were even to grant that cases like those mentioned might in some very rare instances again happen, we should not be furnished with a good reason for omitting inoculation with variolous matter, in order to clear up any doubts which might remain unsatisfied with regard to the permanent efficacy of cow-pox. We are bound to compare the probable evil with the probable good; and we ought not to hesitate between the very minute portion of danger arising from the use of the variolous test after vaccine inoculation, and the great advantages likely to be produced by silencing, in the mode which the objectors themselves propose, a very serious charge against vaccination.

Mr. Ring considers it to be a work of supererogation, to 'try such experiments, if they are even innocent;' when it is recollected 'what a vast number of persons have been vaccinated in this metropolis, and are daily exposed to the danger of catching the small-pox in the natural way, without receiving it.' The actual insertion of variolous matter must be admitted to be the most complete test of the constitution being safe; which, it is somewhat singular, Mr. Ring himself allows;

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lows: for after having informed us that 'a considerable number of persons who have been vaccinated four years, and others who have been vaccinated five years and upwards, have hitherto resisted, and still continue to resist, the infection of the small-pox in this metropolis, and other parts of the kingdom,' he states that he is prepared to adduce 'evidence of a nature still more convincing, in order to confound the enemies of vaccination, and to convince those who are open to conviction.' This more convincing evidence is the *inoculation*, with small-pox matter, of several patients who had cow-pox at a very early period of the practice. Three of them were children of Mr. Henry Jenner, vaccinated five years ago; and two others were patients who were vaccinated by Dr. Jenner, the one of them more than six, the other more than eight years since.

The author adduces what he considers as an unanswerable proof of Mr. Goldson's want of candour, in the title which the latter gives to his publication; asserting that Mr. G. prejudges the question, by terming it 'cases of small-pox subsequent to vaccination,' instead of 'supposed cases of small-pox after vaccination,' or, 'cases of small-pox after supposed vaccination.' This objection appears to us unworthy of the gravity and importance of the discussion. If Mr. Goldson actually had any doubts on the nature of the cases which he lays before the public, it would have been highly blameable to have given a decided opinion of their nature in his title page. He appeared before the public, however, not that he might be assisted in making up his mind on the nature of the cases which he relates, but for the purpose of procuring an investigation of the truth of what he considered to be a probable deduction from them. He was convinced that they were cases of small-pox occurring after successful vaccination: but, conceiving himself justified in regarding it as a probable inference that cow-pox was only a temporary preventive of small-pox, he thought it right to state this opinion, in order that its validity might be examined where it might be discussed with effect. The result of this inquiry will not affect the particular cases related. They may be genuine instances of what they are stated to be, and in this event they will continue so, whether the doctrine built on them be true or false:—should it prove unfounded, the only inference deducible from them will be, that, in some very rare instances, cow-pox is not a preservative against small-pox; and this, as we before observed, is saying no more than may be said of the latter disease itself, which does not always destroy the susceptibility to a second attack.

Mr. Ring is very anxious, in the observations before us, to prove that, in none of the cases related by Mr. Goldson,

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cow-pox actually succeeded; and that therefore it could afford no matter of wonder that small-pox should occur under such circumstances. On one of the cases, he observes that 'we have no proof, that the child had been effectually vaccinated,' and that 'it is not evident that her case was not one of those cases of imperfect vaccination, which the soil of Portsmouth seems to have produced in great abundance:' but does Mr. Ring really state these doubts as arguments? Has he proved the charge of *mala fides*, which he so often insinuates against Mr. Goldson, in such a way as to make it reasonable to infer, that what he has actually reported to be cow-pox was in truth not that disease? Such a charge appears to us to be highly illiberal and unwarrantable. If it were Mr. Ring's opinion that small-pox had never been known a second time, and that, when such an occurrence had been reported, it ought to be concluded (with one of his correspondents) that the first infection had been imperfect, he might then derive some aid from analogy, and boldly deny the possibility of small-pox ever manifesting itself after cow-pox: but with the analogy, as it now stands, of the second occurrence of small-pox in some very rare cases, it will be difficult to support such a conclusion; and we are therefore required to believe, unless the charge of ignorance or *mala fides* be satisfactorily proved, (which by Mr. Ring it certainly is not) that, whatever our opinions may be with regard to the appearances reported in the cases in question, cow-pox had actually preceded them.

On the whole, we conceive the present pamphlet to be by no means creditable to the author, whether we consider the spirit which pervades it, or the nature of the reasoning which it contains. We have at all times been happy to admit that vaccination has owed much to Mr. Ring's zeal; and we are sorry that he has thought it right, in the present instance, to condemn so unequivocally, and, we would add, with so little reason and consistency, a farther examination of the preventive powers of inoculated cow-pox, without which it is impossible that the public can rely on it with confidence.

The author adverts to that part of Mr. Goldson's publication, in which it is remarked that there is a difference between the appearance of the vaccine vesicle in the cow, and in the human subject; and that hence it may be conceived, with perfect propriety, that though the matter taken immediately from the cow has a completely preventive effect, which Mr. Goldson allows, yet a change which is unfavourable to those powers may be produced in passing through the human body. Mr. Ring endeavours to remove any force which this argument may be supposed to possess, by stating, from his own observa-

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tion and that of Dr. Jenner and Dr. Woodville, that the blue appearance, considered by Mr. Goldson as characteristic of the vesicle in the cow, not unfrequently occurs in the human subject.

Some other pamphlets on the question of cow-pox will be noticed in the *Catalogue* part of this number.

Yell.

Art. V. *On Christ's Descent into Hell, and the intermediate State.* A Sermon on 1 Peter iii. 18, 19, 20. By Samuel, Lord Bishop of St. Asaph. 4to. 1s. 6d. Hatchard. 1804.

The object of this discourse, as clearly stated by the Right Rev. preacher, is 'to shew that the assertion in the Apostles' Creed, that "our Lord descended into Hell," is to be taken as a plain matter of fact in the literal meaning of the words; to shew what proofs we have of this fact in holy writ; and to shew the great use and importance of the fact as a point of christian doctrine.'

As this learned prelate is known to be a profound reasoner, it may be supposed that he supports this hypothesis with all possible strength of argument: but it is one of those subjects in which, if difficulties are removed on the one hand, they rise up on the other. It is evident that the compilers of the Creed and the 3d article meant, by *Christ's descent into Hell*, something more than that he "*died and was buried;*" for otherwise the passage in debate is entirely pleonastic or redundant: but divines have differed in their interpretation of the word which is translated *Hell*. The Bishop of St. Asaph rejects the idea of its meaning the place of torment, and contends for its being understood as the place or region 'under ground,' destined for the reception of spirits separated by death from the body; where 'all souls, their nature being similar, are placed together in the same element;' i. e. the disengaged spirits of the righteous and of the wicked pass to different subterraneous receptacles. Hence it is argued that the human soul of Christ, in the interval between his death and the resurrection of his body, occupied its appropriate receptacle among the good spirits; and that this region is the *Paradise* to which he alludes in his promise to the penitent thief on the cross: for the Bishop is persuaded that the doctrine of the creed is also the doctrine of scripture. It may be first objected to this account, that it makes a threefold division of the *one Christ* at his death; by which his body is in one place, his human soul in another, and his Deity in a third; unless we say with this learned prelate, that 'to exist without relation to place is one of the

incommunicable perfections of the Divine Being;' and if we admit this, it will be difficult to conceive how the Divine Nature could be united to the body of Christ more than to any other body; or how it could be united to the human soul of Christ, and descend with it to its temporary "local habitation."—Secondly, we never read of an under-ground *Paradise*; nor of *prison* or *place of safe custody*, as synonimous with Paradise.—Thirdly, if the descent into Hell be so plain an article of scripture, how came it to be omitted in the Nicene creed?—Fourthly, how does this doctrine agree with the phrase, 2 Cor. v. 8., *absent from the body and present with the Lord*; for if Christ has now left this prison-house to which the disengaged souls of saints are sent previously to the resurrection, the dismission from the body is not immediately followed by an introduction into the presence of Christ.—Lastly, how strange is it, on the supposition of this safe place of custody in the bowels of the earth for disembodied spirits between death and the resurrection, that no hint is given of the surrender which this place is to make previously to the last judgment; when, in the preparation for this solemn event, both the earth and the sea are represented as yielding up the dead that are in them? We confess that in our view the doctrine is encumbered with difficulties, in spite of the Bishop's masterly efforts to illustrate it: but, if it be a doctrine of scripture, we must acquiesce, and hope that what we see now as *in a glass darkly* we shall know better hereafter.

To prove the doctrine of Christ's actual descent into *Hell*, or the place of *safe keeping* (the word substituted in this sermon for *prison*), this Right Rev. preacher adduces three texts, in addition to the promise of our Lord to the penitent thief. The first is the text of the Psalmist (Ps. xvi. 10.), quoted by St. Peter in his sermon on the day of Pentecost (Acts ii. 29—31.); which gives an opportunity for this logical argumentation: 'If the soul of Christ were not left in hell *at* his resurrection; then, it *was* in hell *before* his resurrection. But it was not there either before his death, or after his resurrection; for that never was imagined. Therefore it descended into hell after his death, and before his resurrection.' The second text is Eph. iv. 7—10., on which it is remarked that, whatever ambiguity some may suppose to exist in the phrase "the lower parts of the earth," it is in the Greek language a periphrasis for "Hell," and 'is so much a name for the central parts of the globe, as distinguished from the surface, or the outside, on which we live; that had the apostle intended by this phrase to denote the inhabited surface of the earth, as lower than the heavens; we may confidently say, his Greek converts at Ephesus would not easily have

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have guessed his meaning.' Here, however, it is proper to recollect that the quotation from the Psalmist by the Apostle respects only the ascent of Christ from the surface of the earth to the heavens; and that the parenthesis in the 9th and 10th verses has all the appearance of being a note written in the margin of a copy of this epistle, and, by the carelessness or design of some subsequent transcribers, amalgamated with the original text. The passage reads better without these two verses than with them; since the parenthesis, which they form, seems to force itself in most unnecessarily. The third illustration is that which is placed at the head of this discourse, 1 Peter iii. 18, 19, 20. As the phrase, "*spirits in prison*," does not, as we have remarked, very well harmonize with the notion of a Paradise, some critical pains are taken to set this matter in a better point of view:

'As a place of confinement, though not of punishment, it may well be called a prison. The original word, however, in this text of the apostle, imports not of necessity so much as this; but merely a place of safe-keeping: for so this passage might be rendered with great exactness. "He went and preached to the spirits in safe-keeping." And the invisible mansion of departed souls is to the righteous a place of safe-keeping, where they are preserved under the shadow of God's right hand, as their condition sometimes is described in scripture, till the season shall arrive for their advancement to their future glory; as the souls of the wicked, on the other hand, are reserved, in the other division of the same place, unto the judgment of the great day. Now if Christ went and preached to souls of men thus in prison, or in safe-keeping; surely he went to the prison of those souls, or to the place of their custody.'

If it be asked what could be the end of Christ's preaching to those whose state could not be affected by repentance and faith, and especially to the souls of antediluvians? the Bishop is prepared with an answer: 'He went to preach or to proclaim to them that the sacrifice of their redemption had been actually offered.' He subjoins,

'It does not at all startle me, to find antediluvian souls in safe-keeping for final salvation. On the contrary, I should find it very difficult to believe (unless I were to read it somewhere in the Bible) that of the millions that perished in the general deluge, all died hardened in impenitence and unbelief; insomuch that not one of that race could be an object of future mercy, beside the eight persons who were miraculously saved in the ark, for the purpose of repeopling the depopulated earth. Nothing in the general plan of God's dealings with mankind, as revealed in Scripture, makes it necessary to suppose, that of the antediluvian race, who might repent upon Noah's preaching, more would be saved from the temporal judgment, than the purpose of a gradual repopulation of the world demanded; or to suppose, on the other hand, that all, who perished in the flood,

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are to perish everlastingly in the lake of fire. But the great difficulty, of which, perhaps, I may be unable to give any adequate solution, is this: For what reason should the proclamation of the finishing of the great work of redemption, be addressed exclusively to the souls of these antediluvian penitents? Were not the souls of the penitents of later ages equally interested in the joyful tidings? To this I can only answer, that I think I have observed, in some parts of Scripture, an anxiety, if the expression may be allowed, of the sacred writers to convey distinct intimations, that the antediluvian race is not uninterested in the redemption, and the final retribution.'

A farther reason is added for this preaching: 'It may be conceived, that the souls of those who died in that dreadful visitation, might, from that circumstance, have peculiar apprehensions of themselves, as the marked victims of divine vengeance, and might peculiarly need the consolation which the preaching of our Lord in the subterraneous regions afforded to these prisoners of hope.'

A variety of remarks may be offered on this very bold and curious passage: but we shall content ourselves with one stricture. If it were the object of Christ to preach to these antediluvians in prison, how are we to account for our hearing nothing of this design from himself; and for his devoting only a few hours to the consolation of so many millions of souls, who, *in their paradise*, had been trembling as 'the marked victims of divine vengeance?'

Though we have not always perused Dr. Horsley's representation of the intermediate state, and of our Lord's temporary visit to it, with that conviction which he might wish to impress on his readers, we admire his distinguished ingenuity: and we could wish, on acconnt of the comfortable inferences which he deduces from the doctrine, that the objections to it were more easily surmountable.

'Its great use, (says he,) is this: That it is a clear confutation of the dismal notion of death, as a temporary extinction of the life of the whole man; or, what is no less gloomy and discouraging, the notion of the sleep of the soul in the interval between death and the resurrection. Christ was made so truly man, that whatever took place in the human nature of Christ, may be considered as a model and example of what must take place, in a certain due proportion and degree, in every man united to him. Christ's soul survived the death of his body. Therefore shall the soul of every believer survive the body's death. Christ's disembodied soul descended into hell. Thither, therefore, shall the soul of every believer in Christ descend. In that place, the soul of Christ, in its separate state, possessed and exercised active powers. In the same place, therefore, shall the believer's soul possess and exercise activity. Christ's soul was not left in Hell. Neither shall the souls of his servants there be left, but for a season. The appointed time will come, when the Redeemer shall set open the doors of their prison-house, and say to his redeemed, "GO FORTH."

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This sermon is intended to form part of the Appendix to the 2d edition of the Hosea; in some of the additional Notes to which, the Bishop has politely mentioned that he has availed himself of some slight hints which we gave in our account of that work, for the improvement of his new version of that Prophet.

Mo-y.

ART. VI. *Communications to the Board of Agriculture*, on Subjects relative to the Husbandry and internal Improvement of the Country. Vol. III. Part II. 4to. pp. 250. 7s. 6d. Boards. Nicol. 1804.

PERHAPS no country in Europe, on the proposition of a subject for general discussion similar to that which occasioned these Communications, could have obtained from the mere class of its agriculturists, such a number of able and ingenious essays as compose the first and second part of the volume before us. In this view, alone, the fact is creditable to the Empire, and we notice it with much satisfaction: but our pleasure in this case does not result solely, nor principally, from feelings of national vanity; it is especially derived from a persuasion that science and patriotic emulation, already so widely diffused among the cultivators of the soil, must be productive of incalculable benefits. The question on which the Board of Agriculture, at the instigation of the House of Lords, was desirous of collecting the opinions of practical farmers and country-gentlemen, was stated by us in our account of the first part of this volume, (M.R. Vol. xxxix. N.S. p. 59.) and is no doubt in the recollection of our readers. It was a question occasioned by the late scarcity of bread-corn, and respected the practicability of converting grass land into tillage, and of returning it to grass after a certain course of crops, in an improved state, or at least without injury. Various writers, some taking their chance for the premiums offered by the Board, others expressly disclaiming all view to pecuniary reward, offered their thoughts on this subject; and if there be any truth in the proverb that "*in the multitude of counsellors there is safety*," we may congratulate ourselves on the mass of opinions which is here collected. Fourteen separate Essays occupied the first part, and that of which we are now required to give some account contains seventeen; making the whole of the papers published by the Board, on the convertible system, to amount to thirty-one.

Deciding on the evidence collected in this volume, we may consider it as an established principle that it is not adviseable to plough up those old pastures which are covered with a rich and luxuriant herbage: but that there is a kind of pasture ground,

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ground, which may be occasionally broken up with advantage to the occupier, the landlord, and the public; and which, under a judicious course of cropping, and with proper care and management, may be laid down again to grass in an improved state. Pastures which are covered with moss, fern, ant-hills, furze, rushes, &c. and the herbage of which is of an indifferent kind, call aloud for the plough: but in its use skill is required to clear them from noxious plants, and at the same time to avoid deteriorating and exhausting the soil. This process is greatly assisted, not only by the attention which is now bestowed in discriminating the different kinds of soils, but by studying the several grasses of which the herbage of meadows is composed. A proper selection of seeds is an object of prime importance; for all the labour of paring and burning, of ploughing, harrowing, picking, &c. is thrown away, as far as the restoration of the pasture is concerned, if, when the land is laid down to grass, the same rubbish be re-sown as that with which it was formerly pestered and disgraced. It is a promising circumstance therefore to find, by this and other publications, that our farmers are endeavouring to ascertain the characters and comparative value of the different English grasses; that they distinguish between Poas and Fescues, study the Linnean classification, and attend both to the variety of herbage, and to the quality of each plant, as evinced in supporting and fattening animals. To give practical effect to these attentions of the agriculturist, the seedman must be vigilant and accurate; and we should be pleased to see some spirited men in this line advertising to supply farmers with the pure and unmixed seed of the most approved grasses, such as the meadow foxtail and flote foxtail, meadow fescue and flote fescue, smooth and rough stalked poa and water poa, ray grass, cocksfoot dactylis, crested dog's-tail, sweet-scented vernal-grass (*anthoxanthum odoratum*), marle-grass (a species of red clover, indigenous and perrennial), white clover, rib-grass (*plantago lanceolata*), yarrow, and yellow oat. The seedman who should perform this task could not fail of obtaining ample remuneration.

In this collection of Essays, though professedly on a given subject, we find considerable variety; and much agricultural information may be collected from them. We cannot, however, regularly examine each paper; and we must request the several contributors to pardon the cursory manner in which we are obliged, by our limits, to report the merits and contents of each.

The first memoir, in this second part, or No. 15 of the series, is written by Mr. Bailey, of Chillingham, Northumberland.

 This

This gentleman would preserve from the plough-share all lands 'which will depasture five or more sheep an acre, through the summer, or two oxen to three acres.' On such pastures, he would not run the risk of making the proposed experiment; yet he has no hesitation in recommending the convertible husbandry to be tried on those old grass lands which, in the technical phrase of the farmers, are become "hide-bound" and "deaf," as well as covered with moss, fern, and rushes, &c.; and he asserts his conviction of the possibility that, after having produced several abundant crops of grain, they may be restored to pasture in an ameliorated state. Directions adapted to different soils are given, respecting the mode of breaking up, the course of crops, the seeds with which they are to be laid down, and the mode of managing the young seeds.—In respect to the question, What increase of rent the tenant should pay, on permission obtained to break up old pastures? this writer, weighing, as others also have done, the variety of cases which may occur, prudently abstains from giving a decisive judgment.

Mr. Bridge, of Winford, Dorsetshire, the author of the next Essay, is nearly of the same opinion with his predecessor on the chief subject in discussion. Though he admits that there are pastures which may be occasionally ploughed up with advantage, yet, says he,

'I would by no means recommend an indiscriminate breaking up of grass lands, as the rich pastures and meadows, if once converted to tillage, will not for a long course of years, perhaps not for ages, resume their former luxuriancy. The lands which promise the greatest advantages are the coarse and rough pastures, where the soil is moderately good and dry, and which can be covered with some one of the various sorts of marle before they are broken up. This pasture forms a considerable part of the *ewe-leases* of the county of Dorset, to which my observations have been chiefly confined. That my meaning may not be misunderstood, I will repeat, that it is not my intention to recommend a general breaking up of *ewe-leases*, or of any part thereof, where the grass is sweet and much fed on by the sheep, for such land cannot fail of being injured by tillage; with respect to the rough pastures the case is very different, as I have learned from actual experiments.'

Mr. Wilkes, of Measham, Derbyshire, corroborates this decision; and his view of the subject also we shall transcribe:

'Grass land, of the first and second rate quality, is so valuable to the owner and community, by a great production of beef, mutton, milk, butter, cheese, pork, wool, hides, tallow, &c. that the value of its produce would be much decreased by the plough; if it be strong tenacious soil, it cannot be restored to its former quality in less than thirty years; land of a deep rich light soil will not return to its original

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ginal quality, in less than fifteen years, upon a system of good management, as that of an ameliorating crop between two white crops, such as the land is adapted for, with fallows and dressings of lime.

'Land which is capable of artificial watering is too valuable to be ploughed.

'Land situated near large towns, and other situations for cheap improvement, may also be made too rich for the plough, but not for grass.

'There is a sort of heathy and moory land, that produces scarcely any keep for sheep or cattle; such lands on the north of Trent, in high cold situations, I would also advise not to be ploughed but to lay on such rough turf, eighty quarters of quick lime per acre, which will destroy that turf, and produce a rich one, which will feed either sheep or beast.

'All the aforesaid lands are a small portion of the whole of the kingdom; therefore great quantities of land of the third and fourth rate quality, which alternately produce grass and corn, may be varied in their culture, according to the demand of the kingdom.'

In the Essay No. 18. Mr. Ans, near Launceston, Cornwall, is induced by the circumstances of his situation to advert to the process which should be pursued on moory soils; and he throws out a hint, by way of caution, for the benefit of those who may be disposed to speculate on such soils as he describes:

'The moors in general, with much of the inclosed lands in this country, are composed of a light soil uppermost, consisting probably for the most part of decayed vegetables, mixed with spar, (a hard white stone,) with clay, within a few inches below. Where the bottom is of granite, which happens chiefly, if not entirely, in elevated situations, there, clover is not expected to thrive, nor does corn ripen kindly unless in warm dry summers. It is much to be feared, therefore, that those sanguine writers, &c. on husbandry, who count so largely on acres of coarse ground yet to be inclosed and added to the stock of tillageable land in this kingdom, have had but little experience, or are superficial observers, of the laborious attempts which even experienced farmers have occasionally made in tillage, at such heights on the forests and moors of these, and other counties, but which seldom repaid their cost and toil.'

No. 19. does not apply to the first object proposed by the Board, though the author contends for its connection with the last; being *an Essay on Gypsum as a manure*, by Mr. Smith of Highstead near Sittingbourne, Kent. This gentleman speaks in the strongest terms of the advantage of Gypsum as a manure, though no brother agriculturist in this associate volume joins with him in its praise. He observes; 'I have the best grounds to believe, that in all dry loams, sands, and calcareous soils, or on stiff churlish ones, previously ameliorated by chalk, no manure whatever will so cheaply, readily, and permanently invigorate

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gorate the exhausted soil laid down with the artificial grasses, as gypsum.' Among the various trials with gypsum, this amusing anecdote is recorded:

'I have been assured, on respectable authority, that the effect of gypsum on wheat is very considerable. With respect to peas after sainfoin, gypsumed, I cannot forbear mentioning the following fact, as told me by a most respectable farmer in this neighbourhood. It happened that my friend, after dressing a piece of clover with gypsum, had about half a bushel left, which he ordered his man to sow on the adjoining sainfoin, belonging to a perverse, obstinate, old farmer; the effect proved astonishing, and upon the old man's finding out the circumstance, instead of profiting by it, he grew peevish, and wondered what business Mr. L——— had to sow his new-fangled stuff on his sanfoin, which, for aught he knew, might afterwards do as much harm, as it now seemed to do good. The laugh, however, going very much against him amongst his neighbours, he determined to get rid of the cause, by breaking up the sainfoin and sowing peas; but, behold! they likewise rose up in judgment against him so powerfully, on the gypsumed spot, that he was at last, though reluctantly, forced to confess, that it was good stuff; with such conviction, can it be credited that this perverse mortal has not tried a single bushel to this day? I may add, that my friend viewed the sainfoin and pea crops, each year before they were cut, and thought them the strongest instances he had seen of the effects of gypsum. I am therefore happy in having the opportunity of appealing, if necessary, to his testimony, as he is deservedly esteemed one of the most intelligent and best farmers in this country.'

Mr. Smith concludes this paper rather in the *hobby-horsical* style, by telling us that he sees 'in this precious stone a surer rock of defence against future dearth, than in thousands of acres newly enclosed on barren heaths, or dreary unprofitable wastes and commons.'

The ensuing paper is written with bluntness, but not without much good sense. Mr. Head, of the Hermitage, near Rochester, is the author; and we may term him the Lavater of agricultural nature. He seems to have studied the physiognomy of soils, (if we may so express ourselves,) and offers various acute remarks. Thinking that he saw in the proposals of the Board a wish to know 'what the earth has told a man in the last twenty seasons,' he takes up his pen to communicate information; suggesting, however, at the same time, that it ought to be received with some caution, since 'Experience is not *always* the parent of wisdom; men living harnessed and strapped sometimes to favourite theories.' Like Æsop's cock, he has scratched the dunghill: but whether he has found the jewel, he leaves facts to decide. A want of precision in the proposition of the Board is intimated: but he takes it for granted that the breaking up of rich pastures, termed by him

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'the valuable depôts of the fructification of centuries,' could never have been in their contemplation. On the subject of paring and burning, he remarks:

'There can scarcely be a more complete *caput mortuum*, than poor land pared and burnt, and then exhausted by corn crops; but as the commencement of a fresh grass system on worn out grass, or on natural poor grass, with a constant reference alone of assisting the land and helping it to manure, by the consumption of grass or green plants on its own bosom, it beats every thing.

'In short, if you use paring and burning, as a nurse to help a weak child, the weak child may grow to a strong lusty man; but if you make it an experiment to try what you can lay on and take off the land, in the smallest possible time, you may carry a great deal off, and leave the land an infant in power, almost for ever.'

When required to give his opinion relative to the Sorts and Qualities of grass-seeds for each kind of soil, Mr. H. thus writes:

'It makes a man tremble at his own insufficiency, when he is called upon to answer satisfactorily a question so very general, as is here brought forward for discussion.

'Soils themselves, with their marked varieties, are known under the titles of clays, loams, gravels, &c. but their caprice of product, and how they effect and cherish particular grass-seeds, is one of those arcana which, I am afraid, lies hid from the most accurate theory.

'The reason why I entertain these doubts, is from two facts within my own knowledge, which I have often repeated to the best practical men, who always admitted their truth, but never pretended to give any solution.

'The first is this; there are certain lands, on which, if you sow broad red clover and feed it off with sheep, do what you will, it will never place an ounce of fat on a sheep's bones, and yet on other lands, the same grass will fat them kindly.

'In all other respects, the broad red clover seems equally adapted to both; the product in point of appearance and quantity to the eye, or to the steel-yard, if weighed, is the same; and yet the qualities are so widely different, that in the appropiation of its use to fatting sheep on one sort of land, it is excellent, and on the other is worth nothing at all.

'Another fact is this; there are some lands which, if sown with either grey or white peas, will turn out according to their known character, a boiling crop, or a non-boiling crop, whatever the seed sown on them may be.

'If the land is boiling land, and non-boiling white or grey peas are sown, the product will invariably be boilers; if the land is a non-boiling land, no boiling pea that is sown, will produce a boiling crop.'—

'In addition to these singularities of the product of the soil, where the seed sown does not reproduce in its crop the representation of its own nature, and where the soil riots in its own caprice, may be mentioned the well known fact, that some grass lands are exclusively good for

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for horses, some for milch cows, some for breeding sheep, some for fatting sheep, and some for fatting oxen.

'If an experienced botanist were to examine the grasses growing on them; if an experienced farmer were called upon to determine the soil upon which they grew, the botanical and agricultural description of all these fields, laying perhaps nearly adjoining each other, would vary but little, perhaps not at all, and yet their properties vary, although their original natures are the same.

'If then these grasses, on lands nearly adjoining, differ so much in their effect and use, the Board will naturally see, with what modesty a man ought to wield the didactic sceptre, on such a subject.'—

'He who in his closet can say with what grass seeds lands in general ought to be laid down, may paint upon a wall a human face, and call it the exact resemblance of all created men.'

We are informed in a subsequent section that

'There are certain vicissitudes of heat, when animals require very little nourishment; there are also certain vicissitudes of cold, which seem, from their effects, to lock up the appetite, as it were, and to subjugate the nature of the animal to the casualties of the seasons.

'An ox will thrive almost on sunshine and water, in hot weather: a poor Mendip wether sheep will support himself alive, for a fortnight, completely covered and buried under snow in the winter, provided the snow is drifted against a stone wall, the common defence of the Mendip hills; and that he stands upright while the snow is falling; if he lies down at first, he never rises; but if he stands, so as to have a sufficient space to lie down when he is tired, he lives in little want of food for ten days, or a fortnight. This is a fact well known to the Mendip farmers.'

Mr. Head concludes with recommending the cultivator to consult the natural vegetation of the earth.

The Rev. Mr. Youle, of West Retford, Notts, in the 21st Essay, wisely recommends us to be cautious how we diminish the due proportion of grass lands in this country; deduces some important 'conclusions on the value of labour in the productions of the earth, to prove that it is the best source whence a larger supply of food may be had;' and advises light soils to be kept alternately in grass and tillage, since by this management the neat profit will be much more than if the land be kept constantly grass, or constantly in tillage.

Our attention is directed in the next paper, by Mr. Wynne, of Dublin, to the state of agriculture in Ireland, in which the process of potatoe husbandry is detailed; and in returning strong land to pasture, it is recommended to sow the seeds among wheat in preference to any other grain.

Mr. Low, of Woodlands by Dunse, Berwickshire, among a variety of useful directions, offers the following, on the disputed topic of Paring and Burning:

'Breaking

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'Breaking up lands for crop, by paring and burning, can only be adopted with success in the following cases. 1st, Where the surface is so stiff with old and unprofitable grasses, rushes, sprotts, &c. as not to be easily reduced by the operation of the plough in the course of a summer fallow, and where the soil is so deep as not to be rendered too thin by a repetition of this practice. 2d, Where the *substratum*, makes better and more productive soil when actuated upon by manures, such as lime, marle, or ashes, than the surface soil does. Moorish grounds having a thin layer of moss or spongy peat earth covered with heath, over a kind of reddish earth, inclined to sand, of which there is much in Scotland, falls under this last description. 3d, Moss, having a *substratum* of Carse clay.'

Contrary to most of the contributors on the present occasion, Mr. L. argues against the propriety of an increase of rent to be paid by the farmer for the lands which he is permitted to break up, provided that they are returned to pasture in an improved state after a rotation of four or five years; especially if these fields of old grass are connected with a farm, consisting of different kinds of soils of an inferior quality.

The cultivation of English grasses, and their relative merit, form the prominent feature of the Essay (No. 24.) by Mr. Toilet of Twining, Tewksbury; and his remarks ought not to be neglected by the farmer. One extract will evince the merit of Mr. T. in this line:

'*Trifolium pratense*.—Marle-grass. Native Red Clover.

'The utility of cultivating our native plants, which I have before recommended, cannot be made more manifest than by attending to the circumstances of that now under consideration. Though botanists have not settled any specific difference between it and the red clover of the shops, there is, however, one distinction of great importance to the agriculturist, viz. the marle-grass is a native plant, congenial to the soil, and perennial; the other, from having been originally introduced from abroad, and probably in some degree from a change arising from long cultivation, has lost its perennial qualities, and in two years disappears from the land.

'In regard to a plant of such great utility as this, it is of the utmost importance that seed should be selected from native plants. Those from our commons and oldest pastures should be obtained for the purpose of raising seed, and every chance of a mixture with the cultivated sort should be cautiously avoided. It has been for some time cultivated. A Mr. Smith of Somersetshire is said to have had the merit of first setting the example. It cannot be too extensively followed. The plant itself and its valuable properties are too well known to need a description. It is a tap-rooted plant, and feeds at a considerable depth. It flowers in May.

'It is best adapted to a midland soil, but is found also in the soundest lowlands.'

Mr.

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Mr. Stickney Ridgmond, Holdernesse, offers this reason against breaking up rich meadow land capable of feeding oxen:

'If such soils are broke up to arable, they are so abundantly productive in straw that the crops generally become lodged, grown over with weeds, and are of course much less productive in grain than soils not so rich; and although by a succession of exhausting crops it might be so reduced as to be sufficiently productive in grain, yet by that means, the vegetative principle of the soil would be so far lessened as that when laid down to grass it would not be near so productive as before it was broke up.'

As some persons are warm advocates for Paring and Burning, it may not be amiss to regard the hint of Mr. Tuke, in his paper (No. 26.) on this subject: 'There is not a doubt, but that paring and burning renders the land extremely fruitful for a time; but if it is not supported by adventitious aids, and indulged by suitable cropping, it becomes more completely exhausted, than by any other mode of cultivation.'

Mr. Protheroe, of Henley, near Bristol, adds that this is a practice which has been much used and much abused; and he quotes these lines from Virgil's Georgics, lib. 2.

"*Sæpe etiam steriles incendere profuit agros,*
Atque levem stipulam crepitantibus urere flammis,"

to prove that it was adopted in the time of that great poet. Had Virgil employed the word *cespitem*, instead of *stipulam*, we must have allowed Mr. P.'s conclusion: but, as the passage stands, we think that it is no more an evidence that the Mantuan bard was acquainted with the art of paring and burning, than with balloon-making. The convertible system in the management of fen-lands is highly extolled by Mr. P. He says that 'the good effects of it are, that the rents have been progressively more than doubled; and that such an increase of population, property, the various kinds of cattle, wool, and of animal and vegetable food has arisen, as to give to the country, where it is established, which before was depressed far below its due level, a degree of importance and respectability, which few of the like extent exceed, or perhaps equal.'

From a sensible paper by Mr. Wright, of Ranby, near Retford, we take only one short passage, on the use of Lime on land:

'Upon the result of experience, and also the corroborating information obtained from very intelligent men, I shall venture to draw the following conclusion as to the acting properties of lime. That lime, though perhaps not possessing one particle of fertility in *itself* as *manure*, has a stimulative power of enforcing to action the food of plants found in land long unused to tillage, or land made fertile by high management; for I am thoroughly satisfied in my mind, not only

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from my own experience, but from all the information I have been able to collect, that lime upon exhausted land is not of the least service.'

Colonel Vavasour, of Melbourne Hall, Pocklington, Yorkshire, in the 30th Essay, repeats the operations to be pursued in breaking up, cropping, and laying down grass lands; and he contends that, when they can be broken up and cultivated with profitable crops, directly and without any preparatory expence, the landlord ought to be an immediate partaker of such profit.

The last communication is offered by Mr. Pitt, of Pendeford, Staffordshire; in which, among many remarks that are the result of experience, he observes respecting Oats, that

'They are adapted for the stronger and moister soils, and are a valuable species of grain even considered as a food for mankind; bread made of oats is in general use in Scotland, part of Yorkshire, the Peak of Derbyshire, and the moorlands of Staffordshire; it is extremely palatable and nutritive, and generally preferred by those who use it, to wheaten bread, and I have often wondered that it is not more generally used in other parts of the kingdom, as a change from wheaten bread; the nutritive and restorative qualities of oatmeal in soups and gruels are universally known, and there is not a more healthy or more nourishing food than the groats of oats in various ways.'

From the enumeration and the various short extracts which we have made, the reader will perceive that the evidence here collected is respectable in itself, and obtained from various parts of the kingdom. The subjects proposed are examined by agricultural men in their several bearings, and from a comparison of their opinions some useful information may be gleaned.

Mo-y.

ART. VII. *Poesie del Magnifico Lorenzo de' Medici*, &c.; *i. e.* Poems of Lorenzo de' Medici the Magnificent, and of some of his Friends and Contemporaries, divided into two Parts. 4to. pp. 500. Boards. Dulau and Co. 1801.

CRITICAL writers have justly remarked, that the progress of Italian poetry was visibly checked in the age which immediately succeeded that of Dante, Boccaccio, and Petrarch. Without pretending to assign all the causes of this literary phænomenon, it may suffice to observe that genius and taste are not propagated in continued succession; nor, like mechanical habits, are infalliby acquired or improved by repeated efforts. Whether they depend on original constitution, or on rare combinations of circumstances, their occurrence can hardly be predicted with certainty in any given state of society. The maxim *Poeta nascitur, non fit*, is true, at least to a certain extent, and will

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will warrant the conclusion that the Muses, like Fortune, are partial and capricious in the distribution of their favours. To this fact of general import, we may add another which is limited, and peculiarly affects the subject in question. We allude to the migration of Italians into Greece, and the arrival of Greeks in Italy, about the commencement of the fifteenth century. From this period, we have to date the discovery of classical manuscripts in the East, the translations and commentaries to which they gave birth, and the introduction of the philosophy of Aristotle and Plato; which all conspired to foster the study of dead in preference to that of living languages, and taught the learned to undervalue their respective vernacular idioms. The latter, in fact, were regarded as unworthy of the serious attention of a scholar, and fit only to beguile the intervals of literary leisure.

Notwithstanding, however, the disrepute into which the national poetry of Italy had thus early fallen, there were not wanting some who deigned to treat it with respect and fondness. Among these, one of the most distinguished was Lorenzo of Medici, who merited and obtained the title of *Magnificent*; and the interesting particulars of whose life and writings have been elegantly detailed by our countryman, Mr. Roscoe *. As a Supplement to that gentleman's justly celebrated work, we are now presented with the poems of Lorenzo, handsomely and correctly printed, and edited by the Signors Nardini and Buonaiuti. To the first part, consisting of 312 pages, the editors have added a second, of 155 pages, containing some of the poems of Poliziano, and of the Three Brothers, Bernardo, Luca, and Luigi Pulci.

A complete collection of the poetical compositions of Lorenzo de' Medici would require an assiduous search for the inedited pieces, and the collation of various printed copies and MSS. few of which can be quoted as correct, or are very accessible to the generality of readers. We presume, therefore, that the present volume has no pretensions to absolute integrity. It contains more, however, than any of the former editions with which we are acquainted, and more than enough for those who are only solicitous to be gratified with genuine poetry.

The editors, we doubt not, have taken pains to establish the authenticity of the pieces which they have inserted; yet we could have desired that they had intimated the principal sources of their information. We cannot commend the freedom with which they have modernized the orthography; for,

* See Rev. Vols. xx. and xxi. N. S.

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even conceding to them the alleged incorrectness of the early copies, the orthography of these last cannot be supposed to have materially deviated from that of the originals. The present alterations, it is true, affect not the rhyme nor the measure, but, from that very circumstance, they are partially adopted, and thus give a motley and discordant complexion to the whole.

As a monument of the active and liberal mind of Lorenzo the Magnificent, the first part of this volume possesses high claims to respectful admiration: but in point of intrinsic poetical excellence, its merits are not of the first order. Love forms the subject of many of his effusions, and it is too often celebrated with little warmth or originality of manner. In few instances does it appear that his hurried compositions were submitted to revision, or that he was anxious to repress cold conceits, tame expansion, or tiresome allusions to the mythology of Greece and Rome. These, we allow, were faults of his age: but they are faults which sound criticism disclaims, and which require to be noticed wherever they occur. We are, indeed, aware that his English biographer has passed a much more favourable sentence on the poetical qualifications of the truly great man whom he celebrates: yet, with becoming deference to Mr. Roscoe's critical acuteness, we are inclined to believe that he has been led away by vague applause of contemporary writers, and by the striking beauties of particular passages, which he has skilfully selected, and communicated to the English reader with singular felicity of translation, without duly estimating the general scope and spirit of the Medicean poetry. It is, nevertheless, an invidious task to pursue with censure the liberal efforts of an enlightened and benevolent statesman, who has long slumbered in the dust; and it therefore is not our intention to dwell on these poems with much critical rigour, but rather to announce their titles and general character to the British public, and leave every unbiassed reader to praise or condemn as his judgment and taste may dictate.

The present collection contains *Le Selve d'Amore* in two distinct and insulated parts, *Nencia da Barberino*, *Ambra*, *La Caccia col Falcone*, *La Confessione*, *Il Simposio*, *L'Altercazione*, two Eclogues, twenty-one small pieces, under the titles of *Canti*, *Canzoni*, and *Canzonette*, and nearly eighty Sonnets.

The *Selve d'Amore* is an amatory effusion, composed in stanzas of *ottava rima*, such as were afterward adopted for the established measure of heroic poetry. It was composed at an early age, and obtained considerable popularity. Though somewhat irregular, diffuse, and coolly prolonged, it contains stan-

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zas which are marked by the expression of native feeling. Such unquestionably are the following:

'In questo loco, ove Madonna gira
Lasso! le luci belle e lagrimose,
Amorosi mister dolente mira,
E rimembra le prime dolci cose;
Ad ogni passo mi chiama e sospira,
E chiama e ode, e di lontan rispose;
Piange e piangendo cresce più il tormento,
E fra se stessa così dir la sento:

'Qui l'aspettai, e quinci pria lo scorsi;
Quinci sentii l'andar di legger piedi;
E quivi la man timida gli porsi;
Qui con tremante voce dissi: or siedi.
Qui volle allato a me soletto porsi;
E quivi interamente me gli diedi;
Quivi legò Amor ambo due noi
Di un nodo che giammai si sciolse poi.

'Quando il sentii tra l'ombre, e'l vidi appresso
Il cor tremava pallido nel petto;
Era desio dubbioso e perplesso
Da timor lieto, e timido diletto.
In un tempo era il vago core oppresso,
Nè so in quel punto quel che avessi eletto:
Mentre Amor spinge i passi, e'l timor frena,
Mi giunse di letizia incerta piena.

'Quivi, gli dissi, omai contento giaci:
Sia lieto il cor, poich' ha quel che desia.
Oh parolette! oh dolci amplessi! oh baci!
Oh sospirar che d'ambo i petti uscia!
Oh mobil tempo! oh brevi ore e fugaci,
Che tanto bene ne portaste via!
Quivi lasciammi piena di desio,
Quando, già presso al giorno, disse; addio.'

The *Nencia da Barberino* deserves to be noticed chiefly as a literary curiosity, being intended as a picture of rustic courtship, and composed in the country dialect, or *lingua contadinesca*. This adaptation of provincial idiom to classical poetry is said to have been first attempted by Lorenzo. In the present instance, the mixture of amorous sentiment with vulgar images produces an effect more ludicrous than pleasing.

Something of the spirit of Anacreon, or of Horace, breathes in the *Trionfo di Bacco e d'Arianna*; and a happy facility of versification distinguishes *Le Fanciulle e le Cicale*. These *Carnival Songs* (*Canti Carnascialeschi*) are relicts of a singular species of composition, which were appropriated to the rude and noisy pomp of the festive season of the Romish church. Though suited, in some measure, to the taste and capacity of the popu-

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lace, Lorenzo's carnival-lays manifest the elegance and refinement of their author.

To particularize the Sonnets, and many of the smaller pieces, would be a tedious and unprofitable task. Their theme, it is almost superfluous to observe, is Love; and their merit chiefly consists in pourtraying the same passion in its wonderful diversities of shades, as they are reflected from the various situations and circumstances which affect its votaries. The limited and artificial structure of the Sonnet loses much of its stiffness under the pen of this *ready writer*. We select as specimens *Il primo Incontro*, which contains the beautiful and splendid comparison noticed by Mr. Roscoe, and *La Ruota della Fortuna*, in which Italian and Latin lines are oddly intermingled:

'IL PRIMO INCONTRO.

'SONETTO.

'*Spesso mi torna a mente, anzi giammai*
Non può partir dalla memoria mia,
L'abito e'l tempo e'l luogo dove pria
La mia donna gentil fiso mirai.

'*Quel che paresse allor, Amor, tu 'l sai,*
Che con lei sempre fosti in compagnia;
Quanto vaga, gentil, leggiadra, e pia,
Non si può dir, nè immaginar assai.

'*Quale sovra i nevosi ed alti monti*
Apollo spande il suo bel lume adorno,
Tale i crin suoi sovra la bianca gonna.

'*Il tempo e'l luogo non convien ch' io conti:*
Chè dov' è si bel sole, è sempre giorno,
E paradiso, ov' è si bella donna.

'LA RUOTA DELLA FORTUNA.

'SONETTO.

'*Amico, mira ben questa figura,*
Et in arcano mentis reponatur,
Ut magnus inde fructus extrahatur,
Considerando ben la sua natura:

'*Amico, questa è ruota di ventura*
Quæ in eodem statu non firmatur,
Sed casibus diversis variatur,
E qual abbassa, e qual pone in altura.

'*Mira che l' uno in cima è già montato,*
Et alter est expositus ruinæ,
E il terzo è in fondo d' ogni ben privato.

'Quartus ascendet jam; nec quisquam sine
Ragion di quel che oprando ha meritato
Secundum legis ordinem divinæ.'

The

The Canzone *on the use of Time* proves that a hackneyed sentiment may be rendered attractive by beauty of language, and felicity of numbers:

'L' Uso del Tempo.

'Canzone.

'*Chi tempo aspetta, assai tempo si strugge;*
E'l tempo non aspetta, ma via fugge.

'*La bella gioventù già mai non torna,*
Nè 'l tempo perso già mai riede in drieto:
Però chi ha' l tempo bello, e pur soggiorna,
Non avrà mai al mondo tempo lieto.
Ma l'animo gentile e ben discreto
Dispensa il tempo, mentre che via fugge.

'*Oh quante cose in gioventù si sprezza!*
Quanto son belli i fiori in primavera!
Ma quando vien la disutil vecchiezza,
E che altro che mal più non si spera,
Conosce il perso dì quando è già sera,
Quel che 'l tempo aspettando pur si strugge.

'*Io credo che non sia maggior dolore,*
Che del tempo perduto a tua cagione:
Questo è quel mal che affligge, e passa il core.
Questo è quel mal che si piange a ragione:
Questo a ciascun debbe essere meo sprone
Di usare il tempo ben che vola e fugge.

'*Però donne gentil, giovani adorni,*
Che vi state a cantare in questo loco,
Spendete lietamente i vostri giorni,
Che giovinezza passa a poco a poco:
Io ve ne priego per quel dolce foco,
Che ciascun cor gentile incende e strugge.'

Similar instances might be quoted from various portions of these poems; and it is not, perhaps, too bold to assert, that the Italian Muse owes much of her beauty to vocal harmony of expression.

In the *Simposio*, or *Beoni*, an unfinished performance, the author presents us with satirical pictures of various classes of his fellow-citizens, when in a state of ebriety. This *jeu d'esprit*, which is composed in *terza rima*, and which is said to have been written with great rapidity, is worthy of attention on two accounts; namely, as illustrative of the coarse manners of the age, and as one of the earliest attempts at satire in the language of modern Italy. At present, it is to be regretted that a few of the stanzas savour rather *strongly* of the licence of the times. Thus,

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'*Quando bevuto ha ben*, piscia ima gora,
Ch' io credo, ch' un mulin macinerebbe.[a]

'*Quand' egli ha ben bevuto, ei s'addormenta,*
E nel dormire, poi russa si forte,
Che convien pel romore e' si risenta;
E sempre suda, e sa un po' di forte.'

The pious reader will likewise be shocked with this profane allusion to the sufferings of our Saviour:

'*Ed ha apparato*, che 'l maggior supplizio
Che avesse in terra il nostro Salvatore,
E' quando in su la croce e' disse, SITIO.'

The *Altercazione*, written like the preceding in *terza rima*, is a poetical dialogue or disputation concerning happiness, as it is defined and illustrated in the philosophy of Plato. The speakers are *Lorenzo*, *Alfeo*, a Shepherd, and *Marsilio Ficino*, the Philosopher. The Platonic doctrines, however much admired by the illustrious writer,—and they occasionally give a tincture to his compositions,—are of a too abstract and metaphysical cast, and too remote from the business and feelings of life, to derive much embellishment from the graces of poetry. The dialogue is terminated by an address to the Deity, which, if more condensed, would be truly sublime.

Ambra takes its name from a favourite little island, which Lorenzo had cherished and improved, but which was swept away by the floods of the Ombrone. This catastrophe is deplored in some classical stanzas, which manifest no common talents for the description of external nature, and the skilful management of allegory.

In the *Caccia col Falcone*, the diversion of hawking is minutely detailed, and yet agreeably enlivened by the introduction of speakers and actors on the scene.

We must now pass to the second part of the volume.

As the poems of *Poliziano* have gone through different editions, and are certainly not superior to those of Lorenzo, they need not long detain us. The most considerable in point of length, though only a fragment, was expressly composed on the Tournament of Giuliano, brother to Lorenzo: but it takes a wide and excursive range,—celebrates, through many descriptions and fanciful images, the youth and loves of Giuliano,—and breaks off before the public exhibition begins. That it contains some pretty stanzas, it were vain to deny: but he must be a sturdy admirer of Italian poetry, who can praise it for unity of design, or refinement of language.—We have been most pleased with the author's descriptions. That of the Morning is worthy of Virgil:

[a] *Già*

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'*Già carreggiando il giorno Aurora lieta*
Di Pegaso stringea l'ardente briglia;
Surgea del Gange il bel solar pianeta
Raggiando intorno con l'aurate ciglia;
Già tutto parea d'oro il monte Oeta;
Fuggita di Latona era la figlia;
Surgevan rugiadosi in loro stelo
I fior chinati dal notturno gielo.

'*La rondinella sopra il nido allegra*
Cantando salutava il nuovo giorno;
E già de' sogni la compagna negra
A sua spelonca avea fatto ritorno.'

Of the minor pieces ascribed to Poliziano, *Le Montanine*, *Il Moralista*, and *La Partenza*, are, perhaps, the most deserving of perusal. The lyrical strains interspersed in his *Orfeo* are not destitute of merit; but this piece was hastily composed in two days, and claims our notice chiefly as one of the first pastoral dramas from which the Italians date the commencement of their opera.

The only compositions of Bernardo Pulci, inserted in this collection, are two elegies, one *on the death of Cosmo de' Medici*, and another *on that of Simonetta Cattaneo*, the Genoese lady in honour of whom Lorenzo exhibited a tournament. Both these ditties are too long and frigid for the language of grief. He who weeps for departed excellence never dreams of Juno, Phœbus, or Apollo; nor, in deploring the female worth and beauty which had subdued and charmed us, should we crowd Venus, Pallas, and Mercury into three short lines.

Some Stanzas by Bernardo's brother Luca, on the celebrated Tournament, have the merit of reciting, with circumstantial accuracy, the ceremonial of the array: but their pretensions, in other respects, are sufficiently humble. His heroic epistles have their admirers. The present editors have given only that from *Jarbas to Dido*, and that from *Poliphemus to Galatea*.

The solitary specimen of Luigi's poetical talents, with which we are here presented, is his *Beca da Dicomano*, in rustic stanzas, designed as a continuation of the *Nencia da Barberino*.

We cannot dismiss the present publication, without apologizing to the editors for those unforeseen occurrences which have so long retarded our report of its merits. Muir.

Art.

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ART. VIII. *A Description of the Genus Pinus*, illustrated with Figures, Directions relative to the Cultivation, and Remarks on the Uses of the several Species. By Aylmer Bourke Lambert, Esq. F.R.S. F.S.A. Vice-President of the Linnean Society. Imperial Folio. pp. 86. and 38 Plates. 10 Guineas, Boards. White. 1803.

THE history of the coniferous family of vegetables, though a subject of much interest and importance, has hitherto obtained a very inadequate illustration. We therefore announce, with no ordinary satisfaction, the prospect of an elaborate and ingenious display of this marked department in botanical science.

The work which now solicits our examination is a flattering presage of the accomplishment of a more extended plan, and is certainly calculated to dispel much of the obscurity, and remove much of the perplexity, in which the Pine genus has hitherto been involved.

'I have devoted my attention to it,' says Mr. Lambert, 'for some years, and have not failed to apply to every source of information connected with the subject, having visited every plantation within many miles of the metropolis, and consulted every author of repute, with a view, not only to ascertain the most accurate specific distinctions; but also to collect every fact relative to the culture and uses of every individual species. One of my objects in writing this work was to endeavour to promote the growth of deal timber in this country, which might be effected much more than at present, and would certainly prove of national importance. Neither would I overlook the ornamental part, or the improvement of the numerous plantations around the noblemen and gentlemen's seats in this kingdom, which at present are composed too much of one species of *Pinus*, and that not the most beautiful, the Scotch Fir. I attribute this to the different species not having been properly pointed out, a defect which is here endeavoured to be remedied. I cannot help lamenting that more has not been done in London towards the promotion of natural science, in describing and publishing accounts of the numerous and interesting public museums of natural history here collected; more abundantly perhaps than in any other part of Europe. But collections are piled upon collections and altogether neglected, while new productions are sought with avidity in distant regions, and I cannot but agree with Cuvier, in his excellent Eloge on the celebrated Bruguieres, that one cause of this neglect, and perhaps the chief, is the facility of procuring pleasures of all kinds in a gay and rich metropolis, added to the charms of the fascinating society in which we live; all these hold out temptations which encroach terribly on literary leisure, and only leave room for a few sacrifices to celebrity: which it must be confessed are not advanced by insulated descriptions and minute discussions.'

Our public collections of natural history in London are, doubtless, respectable: but, if our information be correct, they

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they are greatly exceeded by those of Paris,—a less opulent and more corrupted capital. Whence, then, we may still ask, arises it that, with less extensive pecuniary resources, and with greater frivolity and dissipation, our Gallican neighbours more zealously augment their stores, and more patiently submit to the investigation of minute and laborious details? The solution of this apparent paradox, which must be sought in various causes, would divert us too much from our present subject.

'It is proper,' adds the author, 'in this place to mention how much I am indebted to the works of *Evelyn*, *Du Hamel*, Hunter, and Wangenheim. The last, in particular, which has not appeared in our own language, was found to contain so much valuable matter, that it has been quoted very largely. I ought also here to express my obligations to Dr. James Edward Smith, Dr. William George Maton, Richard Anthony Salisbury, Esq. Jonas Dryander, Esq. and William Townshend Aiton, Esq., from whose kind attention and important communications I have derived essential assistance throughout the whole progress of this work. It is my intention to follow up the present work with an illustration of the remaining genera in the natural order of *Coniferæ*. Several drawings are already finished for that purpose, of the species of *Dacrydium*, and the *Dombeya* of Lamarck, which are intended to be given to the public as soon at possible.'

In the above list of authors, we could have wished to have found the names of Rozier, the Baron de Tschoudi, and particularly of Malesherbes, who published observations on Pines in general, and especially on the Maritime Pine. These observations are inserted in the *Mémoires sur l'Administration Forestière*, an able and useful work published by *Varenne Fenille*.

On opening the present volume, we were much pleased with this well-merited inscription:

'To the Right Honourable Sir Joseph Banks, Baronet, K B. President of the Royal Society, &c. &c., who has dedicated the greatest part of his life to the promotion of natural science, and rendering it useful to mankind. How eminently he has succeeded all Europe is sufficiently informed, and his name will continue an ornament to the pages of science, till time shall be no more.'

The work commences with the generic characters of *Pinus*, and a synopsis of the species: which, with the specific characters, references, scientific descriptions, and notes of the inflorescence and habitations, are given in Latin *only*. This circumstance, minute as it may appear, we cannot help regretting; since all the contents of a volume so truly valuable should be rendered intelligible to every description of readers.

Of the thirty-two species here delineated, eighteen belong to the first section, having several leaves proceeding from the

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same sheathing base; ten to the second, which comprehends those with solitary leaves, encompassing the branches; and four to the third, which includes those with numerous fasciculated leaves, proceeding from one sheathing base. The following are their designations: *Pinus sylvestris*, *P. pumilio*, *P. Banksiana*, *P. pinaster*, *P. pinea*, *P. maritima*, *P. Halepensis*, *P. Massoniana*, *P. inops*, *P. resinosa*, *P. variabilis*, *P. tada*, *P. rigida*, *P. palustris*, *P. longifolia*, *P. Strobus*, *P. cembra*, *P. occidentalis*, *P. abies*, *P. alba*, *P. nigra*, *P. rubra*, *P. orientalis*, *P. picea*, *P. balsamea*, *P. Canadensis*, *P. taxifolia*, *P. lanceolata*, *P. larix*, *P. pendula*, *P. microcarpa*, and *P. cedrus*. *P. Dammara* is added in the form of an Appendix. From this nomenclature, the intelligent botanist will easily perceive how much Mr. Lambert has extended and developed the received accounts of the genus which he has undertaken to illustrate. The details of the respective species embrace the Linnean and vernacular names, the specific characters, references, and synonymes, the habitations, season of flowering, botanical description, remarks relative to the botanical history, modes of culture and uses, explanations of the plates, &c. An example or two of the author's manner will occur in the course of our extracts.

If to the various particulars related of *P. sylvestris*, we add the ample account of its products by Dr. Maton, the whole will, perhaps, be found to contain the substance of most of the valuable communications on this species.

The *pumilio* of the present author was so denominated by Clusius and some of the earlier botanists. It corresponds to *P. sylvestris montana* γ. of the *Hortus Kewensis*, and, probably, to *P. sylvestris mughus* of Scopoli. Villars has observed of this last, that its characters depend on elevation alone, and that they disappear in low situations. This variety of the *sylvestris* may, however, be found to differ in some respects from the *krumholz* of the Germans.

P. sylvestris divaricata δ. of the *Hortus Kewensis*, being a distinct species, and not a native of Europe, has properly obtained a separate rank. Mr. L. observes; 'as I am entirely obliged to Sir Joseph Banks for the first knowledge of this species, I have given it his name.'

A remarkable fact is related of *P. pinaster*; namely, that Mr. Tucker of Devonshire had a tree which bore eighty cones in one bunch.'

Three excellent plates and an accurate description are allotted to *P. pinea*: but no particular directions are given with regard to its cultivation.

P. maritima is more shortly discussed than its importance seems to require. Not only is it capable of resisting the sea-air,

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air, but it screens other trees planted within the influence of saline vapours, and flourishes in pure quartzose sand; a species of soil (if soil it may be called,) which is usually condemned to hopeless sterility. The success which has attended the cultivation of the maritime pine, in various bleak districts of France, should operate as a powerful encouragement to forming plantations of it along the wastes of our sea-shores.

P. Massoniana, so called because it was brought by Mr. Francis *Masson* from the Cape of Good Hope, where it had been raised from seeds sent from China, is as yet little known to the curious in Europe. We therefore gladly copy the following characters and description:

'PINUS MASSONIANA, *foliis geminis tenuissimis longissimis; vaginâ abbreviatâ, antherarum cristâ dentato-lacerâ.*

'*Habitat in China.*

'DESCRIPTIO.

'*Arbor stipulis ciliato-pilosis, vaginis filamentosa-laceris. Folia* 3—4 *uncialia, angusta, canaliculata, margine scabra. Amenta mascula pedicellata. Antherarum crista plana, reniformis, dentato-lacera.*'—

The diligent student will compare these particulars with the account of the long-leaved Indian pine, copied from a manuscript communication of Dr. Roxburgh.

Mr. Lambert justly infers, from the character of the Siberian or Cembra pine, that it might be planted with success on our bleak and mountainous grounds. *Alviez*, which he mentions as its French name, is more properly one of its numerous provincial appellations, and chiefly confined to the neighbourhood of Briançon. Villars has remarked that its name is different in almost every village of Dauphiny.

The characters of *P. occidentalis* are copied from *Swartz* and *Plumier*, but the author cautiously subjoins the following note:

'Dr. Swartz seems only to have seen trees of this species without male flowers or fruit, and could only procure a branch with leaves, and a cone very much mutilated: it therefore still remains to be better described by some future botanist who may be more fortunate.'

As short exemplifications of the plan of this work, and intimations of two species which solicit greater publicity, we quote the ensuing articles.

'PINUS TAXIFOLIA.

'NOOTKA FIR.

'PINUS TAXIFOLIA, *foliis solitariis planis integerrimis, strobilis oblongis, antheris inflato-didymis.*

'*Habitat ad Americæ Borealis oras occidentales.*

'DESCRIPTIO.

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'DESCRIPTIO.

'Habitus. *P. Canadensis, at* folia *angustiora et paululùm longiora, integerrima.* Amenta mascula *ovata, subsessilia, multiflora; antheris inflato-didymis, cristâ reflexâ, minimâ.*

'The figure was taken from a specimen in the Banksian herbarium, brought home by Mr. Menzies, by whom it was discovered on the north-west coast of America, and who has favoured me with the following particulars respecting this species.

'In general habit this tree resembles *P. Canadensis,* and attains considerable height and size. The *leaves* are also very like those of the species just mentioned, but narrower, and their edges are entire; whereas the others are visibly serrated. The *inflorescentia* is much larger than in *P. Canadensis,* and there are more antheræ. As for the *cones,* I can give no account of them, those which were brought by Mr. Menzies having been unfortunately mislaid. That gentleman however informs me that they differ in their form from the cones of *P. Canadensis,* and that they are longer.'

'PINUS MICROCARPA.

'RED LARCH.

'PINUS MICROCARPA, *foliis fasciculatis deciduis, strobilis subrotundis pauciforis; squamis inflexis, bracteolis ellipticis obtusè acuminatis.*

P. LARICINA, *foliis fasciculatis deciduis, conis subglobosis; squamis laxis orbiculatis glabris.* Du Roi. Harbk. ed. Pott. v. 2. 117.

'DESCRIPTIO.

'*Præcedentibus similis,* ramulis *laxè pendentibus,* foliis *paululùm minoribus.* Amenta mascula *brevissima et fere capitata, antheris apice lateribusque ventricosis, cristâ muticâ deflexâ:* fœminea *retusa, pauciflora, bracteolis obovato-ellipticis, acumine obtusiori.* Strobili *parvi, semiunciales, rubicundi, squamis paucioribus, margine inflexis, integris.*

'This species is very scarce in England, but would be a great ornament to the finest plantations. The only tree of any size I have seen is at Whitton, where it was planted by John Duke of Argyll, and which has a remarkably beautiful appearance in the summer, being covered with a great number of bright purple *cones.*

'The specimen from which the figure was taken came from that tree. It is a very remarkable species, the cones being much smaller than those of *P. pendula.* Upon examining the two trees very accurately, I am inclined to suppose them really distinct: besides the smallness of the cones, they differ essentially in the figure of the *bracteolæ.* The cones of both are sent from America annually to Mr. Loddige, one under the name of the black, and the other of the red larch. He has a large plantation of fine healthy trees of each sort, about eight feet high, which produce many cones every year; and although they grow close to each other, the cones always remain distinct. There are two trees growing at Sion House, under the name of the Siberian larch, which I make no doubt were brought from America, and appear to be *P. microcarpa.*'

Without minutely scrutinizing the omissions of a work of such undisputed merit as that now under our review, we must beg

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beg leave to hint that the larches and spruces might have afforded articles more copious, and more detailed; that the remarkable cedar at Enfield was worthy of being noticed; and that the cultivation of several of the species might have been treated with greater latitude of discussion.

Dr. Maton's essay on the various substances prepared from trees of the Pine Genus manifests a very laudable degree of discriminating attention:

'The terms commonly attached to these substances,' he observes, 'are, in general, extremely vague, ambiguous, and inexpressive. Those employed in ancient authors are not to be excepted from the application of this remark; they have occasioned great difference of opinion among commentators, and, in some instances, they remain to this day undefined; but, on the whole, they were used with more precision perhaps than is observable either in the popular discourse, or in the regular *pharmacopœiæ*, of modern times. In the following pages, which are intended to describe the several substances and processes in detail, we shall endeavour to dissipate the confusion as far as we are able, by substituting appropriate appellations for those which are either ambiguous, or likely to lead to error, and by arranging immediately under every head such synonyms as may be adduced without undue latitude of conjecture.'

Agreeably to this exposition, not fewer than eleven distinct substances are stated as procurable from the Scotch Fir alone. These are liquid resin, or turpentine, extract of the juice, yellow resin, essential oil, common resin, black resin, or colophony, tar, tar-water, pitch, lamp-black, and bark-bread. The last mentioned is thus described:

'We are informed by Linnæus that the Laplanders eat, during a great part of the winter, and sometimes even during the whole year, a preparation of the inner bark of the pine, which is called among these people *Bark-bread*. This substance is made in the following manner, viz. After a selection of the tallest and least ramose trees, (for the dwarf, branching ones contain too great a quantity of resinous juice) the dry and scaly external bark is carefully taken off, and the soft, white, fibrous, and succulent matter collected and dried. The time of the year chosen for this process is when the *alburnum* is soft, and spontaneously separates from the wood by very gentle pulling, otherwise too much labour would be required. When the natives are about to convert it to use, it is slowly baked on the coals, and being thus rendered more porous and hard is then ground into powder, which is kneaded with water into cakes and baked in an oven.'

The products from the other species are noticed in a much more cursory manner.

The remarks on the timber yielded by various species of pines, communicated in a letter from Mr. Davis of Hommingsham, are the result of thirty years' experience. We only regret

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gret that they are not more numerous. Among other interesting particulars, Mr. D. observes that 'land planted with Scotch Firs eight feet and a quarter apart, viz. six hundred and forty to an acre, will pay ten *per cent. compound interest*, supposing very poor land at three shillings per acre, worth about four pounds in fee, and the planting to cost six pounds more, in all ten pounds per acre. In twenty-eight years, ten pounds, at compound interest, will be forty pounds, and in that period the trees at only two and sixpence each will be worth eighty pounds.'—*Et dubitamus adhuc?*

Mr. D. also remarks that 'it is a mistake to suppose that fir-trees should be cut in summer, because (as they say) the sap, which is the turpentine, is afloat; they should always be cut when the sap is stagnant, viz. in winter. Fir cut in the summer will become full of mushrooms in a twelvemonth afterwards. I have tried this frequently, and paid dearly for my experience.'

Mr. Lambert has, moreover, inserted a valuable extract from Coxe's Travels in Poland, &c. on the subject of Christiana deal; and a copy of a letter from Mr. Marsham, on insects destructive to pines.

In taking leave of this masterly performance, we must observe that the paper and typography are truly sumptuous; that the plates, which exhibit most of the species, and several of them in different states, with the parts of fructification, &c. are executed in an admirable style; and that the text has added much to our stock of botanical and useful knowlege. We wait with high expectations for the completion of the author's design.

Muir.

Art. IX. *The Year of Sorrow.* Written in the Spring of 1803, by W. R. Spencer. 4to. 5s. Cadell and Davies. 1804.

It is seldom that the public feel cordially disposed to participate in the domestic distresses of individuals: yet the tale of private suffering will sooner and more forcibly affect many persons than the eventful records of war, pestilence, and famine. In paying a melancholy tribute to the memory of those friends and relatives, who, in the course of a single year, were severed from him by death, Mr. Spencer has contrived to interest our feelings; and to recommend his elegiac pages to every reader of taste and sensibility. If his sentiments and images are neither new nor particularly brilliant, they are such as nature dictates when we bewail the loss of those whom we loved.

The

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The commencement of the poem is happily animated:

'Tear from thy guilty brow that vernal wreath,
Chase from thy train those wanton airs which breathe
Of Joy, and Love, and Life! let nought appear
To gratulate thy course, disastrous year!
Away with all the Season's gawdy trim,
Cold be thy zephyrs, and thy suns be dim!' &c.

The personages who figure in this poetical necrology are, the Countess Dowager of Jenison Walworth, John Dunnage, Esq., the Hon. Mrs. Ellis, Mrs. Greville, La Duchesse de Grammont, Sir William Hamilton, and Lady Harriet Hamilton. The lyrical stanzas on the latter are intitled to particular commendation: but where all is elegant and pathetic, it is hazardous to attempt selection. We shall first extract the subsequent passage, without asserting that it is among the best in the performance:

'And art thou gone, Parent * and friend revered!
Parent of her by ev'ry charm endear'd
To this love-beating heart, to whom I owe
All that of bliss mankind can hope below!
Yes, thou art gone! thy Susan, far away,
Smiled no sweet sunshine on thy closing day,
Not on her breast thy drooping forehead hung,
Not to her lips thy summon'd Spirit clung,
Ah! no—whilst others watch'd thy ebbing breath,
And lighten'd by their love the load of Death,
Haply thy Susan, in a distant land,
E'en at that hour the scheme of pleasure plann'd
To meet once more on Danube's happy plain,
And clasp a Mother to her heart again!
'Nor shall the mournful chronicle forget
One who with honest truth my friendship met †;
To him farewell!—thy morning clouds were past,
And all thy days seem'd bright'ning to the last,
Youth was thy season of distress and tears,
But Pleasure met thee in the vale of years,
Scarce ‡ in the vale, ere all thy sand was run,
And thy life ended when thy joys begun ‖,
To thee farewell—and oh! when Summer leads
To Cambria's woodland rocks and streamy meads,
Each scene of Nature's pageantry review'd,
Each scheme of social happiness renew'd,
Each rural day, each festive night shall be
A dear, a long remembrancer of thee!

'* The Countess Dowager of Jenison Walworth, Mrs. Spencer's mother, died at Heidelberg in Germany.'

'† John Dunnage, Esq.' ‡ *Scarcely.* ‖ *Began.*

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O think not fruitless are the griefs which rend
The heart of Friendship o'er a buried friend;
Are they not vouchers of distinguish'd days,
Of active virtues, and decided praise?
The man, when summon'd to the realms of Death,
Who unlamented yields his useless breath,
Though no foul crimes done in his mortal state
The fearful hour of retribution wait,
Yet long in cold obstruction dark he lies
Unwept on earth, unwelcomed in the skies!
Whilst ev'ry tear o'er Friendship's ashes pour'd
Blots out some frailty from the dread record,
And ev'ry sigh breathed on the fun'ral sod,
Wafts the loved Spirit nearer to his God!'

The approaching marriage of the beautiful Lady H. Hamilton is thus joyously hailed, and her sudden death thus pathetically lamented:

'Fresh flowers which on the fountain brink
The breath of day-spring rears,
Whose dainty blossoms only drink
The rainbow's diamond tears;

'Such flowers alone my hand shall wreathe
For Harriet's genial bow'r,
Such flowers alone their sweets shall breathe
On Harriet's * bridal hour.

'Pure as Elysian mornings break,
Fond hopes her fair cheek flush,
Pure as the sinless thoughts which wake
The cherub's infant blush!

'Oh! for a voice, if such there be,
Which sighs have never broke,
Oh! for a harp, whose melody
Of sorrow never spoke!

'For thee, Tyrone, their strains should flow,
Since ev'ry bliss divine
Which saints believe, or seraphs know,
With Harriet's heart is thine.

'Yes, thine are joys beyond the scope
Of fiction's brightest theme,
Brighter than all which youth can hope,
Or Love, or Fancy dream.

'Smile on thy green hills, Erin smile,
Thy woes, thy wars shall cease,
An angel to thy troubled isle
Bears Concord, Joy, and Peace!

'* The Lady Harriet Hamilton, eldest daughter to John James Marquis of Abercorn, was shortly to have been married to Henry de la Poer, Marquis of Waterford, Earl of Tyrone.'

'Ah

'Ah check the song!——————
Too well, when first I tuned the mournful strain,
My boding heart presaged severer pain.
'Tis past—and thou hast struck, disastrous Year!
Thy master-stroke of desolation here.—
'Tis past—young, fair, and faultless Harriet dies,
Lovely in youthful death the slumb'rer lies,
Still hope and peace her gentle features speak,
Life's farewell smile still lights her fading cheek!
Soft was the voice which call'd her spirit hence,
Death wore no shape to scare her parting sense;
A white-robed messenger of light he seem'd,
His looks with smiles of heavenly promise beam'd,
Skywards were spread his wings of feathery snow,
And lilies wreath'd his alabaster brow.
Stanmore through all her joy-deserted seats
No lamentation hears, no sigh repeats;
Silent like thee, whose virgin bier they dress,
Silent like thee, whose pale-rose lips they press,
Thy mourners speak no grief, no dirge prepare,
Thy dirge is silence, and their grief despair!
Oh! mourn, illustrious mourners! with my strain
A nation's sympathy accords in vain.
He who the world's expected mis'ry bears
Claims the sweet solace of congenial tears,
When unforeseen calamities surprise,
Radiant with life and joy when Harriet dies,
Sorrow beyond communion or control
In dumb distraction settles on the soul.
When Evening's wintry veil th' horizon palls,
Frequent for aid the lated wand'rer calls,
When the tornado shakes his demon wings,
And sudden midnight o'er the noon-day flings,
Aghast he sinks beneath th' untimely gloom,
And crazed with speechless horror meets his doom * !' G. 2.

Let us not withhold, also, the concluding apostrophe:

'And yet, disastrous Year! thou canst impart
One reconciling boon to cheer my heart!
Revive, revive my Susan's drooping head,
O'er her pale cheek Hygeia's blossoms shed,
Sooth ev'ry pang, and ev'ry fear remove,
And charm her back to beauty, joy, and love!
Then will I blush for each reproachful tear,
And thank and bless thee still, disastrous Year!'

'* To those who witnessed the affliction of a family not more distinguished by rank and talents, than happy in domestic affections, this description may appear to have every fault, except that of exaggeration.'

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It will be easily perceived that the author is familiar with polished style and smoothly flowing verse. We shall only hint that he is, perhaps, too partial to *continuous* lines,—if so we may call those which carry on the sense, without a terminating pause. Their frequent recurrence ought certainly to be avoided in a short poem, composed in heroic measure.

May Mr. S. soon snatch his harp from the willow, and attune it to the notes of gladness!

Mutr.

ART. X. *The Costume of the Hereditary States of the House of Austria*, displayed in Fifty coloured Engravings; with Descriptions and an Introduction by M. Bertrand De Moleville. Translated by R. C. Dallas, Esq. Imperial 4to. 6l. 6s. Boards. Miller. 1804.

THIS work, which forms the immediate sequel of the publication mentioned in our last Number, p. 179, does not profess to give all the dresses of the different states that compose the German Empire, but is confined to an exhibition of those which are most remarkable in the states belonging to the House of Austria. The form and colouring of the costume in these drawings are said to be faithfully copied from plates in a collection which lately appeared at Vienna, under the title of *Costume des Etats de l'Empereur*: but the publisher boasts of the superior execution of British engravers, of the new arrangement of the plates, and of the descriptions historical, geographical, topographical, and statistical, not to be found in the German performance, with which this elegant volume is enriched. We are unable to ascertain what degree of merit is due to the care here employed in arranging the engravings in a better order than was observed in the original: but it seems to us a strange negligence in this series of engravings, as well as in all the preceding volumes of the same kind, that the title of each plate is not inserted either at the top or the bottom of it; for should it be detached by accident from the accompanying description, the observer may be unable to ascertain what it represents. Dr. Johnson's remark on Epitaphs, that they ought always to include the name of the persons to whom they relate, may be fairly applied to plates exhibiting solitary figures; which may be easily mistaken, and obtain titles very different from those that were primarily intended. In one respect, however, these engravings possess an advantage over all the delineations of costume hitherto furnished by Mr. Miller, viz. the figures are relieved by a landscape back-ground. On the subject of the accompanying letter-press, the publisher speaks with much satisfaction of the assistance which he has obtained from M. Bertrand

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de Molleville, who is said to have devoted his leisure hours to this undertaking.

Prefixed to the Descriptions separately allotted to each plate, is an Introduction, containing A Sketch of the History of the House of Austria and its hereditary dominions; which includes, in the first place, the pedigree of this illustrious family, and next the states which it has acquired by marriages and gifts, by treaties and partitions. The countries here enumerated are The Castle and County of Hapsburg, the Circle of Austria, the Kingdom of Hungary, and the Kingdom of Bohemia. Notice is taken of the first as having antiently belonged to this House, though it has formed no part of its dominions since the year 1415, from which period its property and possession have always remained vested in the Canton of Berne. Of the others, M. Bertrand de Moleville gives this short account:

'Austria, which is divided into Lower, Interior, and Upper, is the most southern part of Germany. It is bounded by Bohemia, Hungary, Italy, Swisserland, and Bavaria. Though mountainous, the soil is fertile, the country producing a great quantity of corn and wine, and abounding in wood, and particularly in pastures. It contains mines of iron, copper, gold, silver, and quicksilver.—The Austrian families of the different classes of the people are almost all descendants of the Sclavonians, or of the Vandals, and the nobility are of German extraction. The Roman Catholic is the established religion of these different states; but Greeks, Protestants, and Jews are tolerated. The number of the inhabitants in the circle of Austria is about 4,150,000.'

The kingdom of Hungary is stated to be about 300 miles long and 200 broad, and to contain 87,575 square miles. It is bounded on the North by Poland, on the West by Germany, and on the East and South by Turkey in Europe. It comprises at present three great provinces, Hungary, properly so called, Transylvania, and Sclavonia.—The number of inhabitants in Hungary is estimated at 4,991,775, at the rate of fifty-seven to each square mile; and that of the banrat of Temeswar, (which was ceded by the Porte to the Emperor, at the peace of Passarowitz in 1718,) at 450,000.

Bohemia, which is one of the most antient monarchies of Europe, consists of Bohemia proper, Moravia, and Silesia. It is about 478 miles long and 322 broad, and is bounded on the North by Saxony and Brandenburg, on the East by Poland and Hungary, on the South by Austria and Bavaria, and on the West by the Palatinate of Bavaria. A great part of Silesia belongs to the King of Prussia by virtue of the treaty of Breslaw of June 11, 1742, the Queen of Hungary's act of Renuncia-

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tion, Aug. 12, 1743, and the treaty of Dresden, Dec. 25, 1745. The House of Austria now possesses in it only the Principality of Teschen, with the eight Seigneuries dependant on it, and the barrier towns to the East of the river Oppa, which divides the possessions of the King of Prussia from those of the House of Austria.—Bohemia has been the seat of so many wars, that the number of its inhabitants, which was formerly about 3,000,000, is at present reduced to 2,100,000, of whom nearly 25,000 are Calvinists, and 9000 Lutherans; the rest are Roman Catholics.

The proportion of Protestants to Catholics is very inconsiderable. No reference is made to the arrangements occasioned in the possessions of the House of Austria by the treaty of Luneville.

From the Bill of Fare for the eye, we copy the following particulars:

'A peasant of Upper Austria—A peasant of Upper Carniola—A Tyrolian Wrestler and Hunter—A servant maid of an inn at Inspruck—A Hungarian countrywoman—A Sclavonian peasant of the county of Neutra—A young bride of Egra in her wedding clothes—A Bohemian Serf—A peasant of Flipovan, in the Bukowine—Saxon Ladies of the city of Hermanstadt—Croatian women—A Polish Jew—A Zouppanese and his wife—A Greek priest of the country of Cattaro—A Serethian—A Pandour, or Red Mantle—A countrywoman of the mountains of Moravia—An Hannachian woman—A Russniac peasant of the Palatinate of Marmaros—A Blacksmith of Upper Austria,' &c. &c.

By this specification, and by considering the geographical position and extent of the countries examined, the reader will not be led to expect such a variety of costume as is furnished by the vast and heterogeneous Empire of Russia: but he will find various figures well drawn and coloured; and if he can derive pleasure from the comparison of dresses, he will obtain amusement.

One or two extracts from the Descriptions must suffice.

'*A Tyrolian Hunter.*—The Tyrolian mountaineers are passionately fond of the chace, and train their children to it. In every village there is a little square appropriated, where the young people practise shooting at a mark, as soon as they are able to carry a gun. The best marksmen among them frequently go to the different places of Germany where prizes for shooting are distributed, and never return till they have gained some. The pursuit of the chamois, which is allowed to be the most toilsome and difficult of all hunting, is that which has the greatest attraction for the Tyrolian. Lightly clad, wearing a large green hat to keep off the sun, his gun slung at his back like a soldier's musket, and a stick pointed with iron in his hand, he traverses the deepest vallies and the highest mountains, on which he often

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often passes several days successively. His haversac, which is commonly covered with fur, and in which he carries his provisions, a small speaking-trumpet, and a pair of iron hooks, serves him also for a pillow by night. He makes use of the iron hooks in climbing the most rugged rocks; and being often obliged to go down them, or leap from one rock to another, he frequently finds it expedient to make a considerable incision in the soles of his feet, that the blood which comes from it may stick about them, and make a kind of paste to prevent his slipping.'

What will not keen sportsmen endure, and inflict on themselves! Self-denial and pain are forgotten in the pursuits to which man is passionately devoted. The philosopher, intent on the solution of a problem, forgets his meal; and the hunter in the chace braves death, and is regardless of wounds.

'*A Serethian.*—The Serethians have been successively subject to Turkey and the Emperor, under the appellation of Croats and Moldavians; and have long inhabited the confines of Transylvania and Moldavia. Those who are Mahometans have continued either under the government of the Grand Seignor, or under that of a prince become independent styled *Hospodar*; the rest are subject to the Emperor, and are embodied with his troops, their service being nearly similar to that of the Tyrolian chasseurs. They precede the army, and lie in ambush at all difficult passes. They are armed with a carbine, two pistols, and a cutlass. Their dress much resembles that of the Houlans; but instead of boots, they wear half boots that cover the ends of their pantaloons. A belt like a hussar's, in which they stick their pistols and cutlass, a very short red jacket sitting close to the body, blue pantaloons, and a simple but elegant bonnet of the same colour as the jacket, compose their dress. The Serethians are well made, brave, robust, and indefatigable. They are accused of being cruel, and of never giving quarter when attacked. They derive their name from the Sereth, a river of Turkey in Europe, which rises in Transylvania, and changes its name several times in its course; it is called the Moldaw in Moldavia, through which it passes, and waters the towns of Joczowa and Targorod.'

This account is adapted to the intended purpose without being minutely explanatory: but some of the descriptions seem to have been furnished merely by a view of the plate, and afford no other idea to the reader than he himself could collect from the same source. Thus at plate 46 we are told that 'the water carrier is returning from the spring, with two pails hung to the ends of the stick which she carries on her left shoulder, *taking great care to place it so as to preserve the equilibrium!*'

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ART. XI. *A Picturesque Representation of the Manners, Customs, and Amusements of the Russians*, in One Hundred coloured Plates, with an accurate Explanation of each Plate in English and French. In Three Volumes. By John Augustus Atkinson, and James Walker. Vol. I. Imperial Folio. 5l. 5s. Boards. Boydell, Nicol, &c.

"MORE sights:" but not appertaining to the same class with those which are displayed in the foregoing and in other similar publications. Messrs. Atkinson and Walker take the *pas* of those gentlemen who deal merely in Costume; on the ground that character, action, and expression, and not the minute particulars of dress, form the distinguishing features of nations. No doubt, indeed, can be entertained on this head; and therefore we must admit the precedence which they claim, and regard these pictorial representations of the manners, customs, and amusements of the Russians as possessing a higher degree of interest than those which simply exhibit their habiliments. The former, if accurately given, will in a great measure include the latter; but the execution of such a plan requires a course of observation not essential to the atchievement of the other. Sufficient opportunity for completing the task here undertaken was enjoyed by the artists before us, of which they profess to have availed themselves, in order to supply the deficiency of predecessors; for they lament that, while we are inundated with tours through Greece, Italy, Swisserland, and other known countries, the vast empire of Russia, which, whether viewed in point of scenery or of character, or even of antiquities, is at least as interesting as any of them, remains comparatively untouched. An apology is made for the want of *finishing* in these delineations: but, at the same time, the authors assure the public that no part has been neglected, nor left, through ignorance, to the imagination of beholders. They thus speak of their design:

'Our intention is to prepare the public for finding that secondary, which is in general made principal, and which we consider as the great defect *in the generality* of costumes, arising from a very obvious cause—the impossibility of seizing the character of the people without an intimate acquaintance with, or a long residence among them; and to its being so much easier to give a figure its appropriate dress, than its true character and expression. As what is here advanced seems in some degree to argue a superiority as existing in the present work; in this respect we hope that it will not be deemed arrogant in us, when (*we state that*) the peculiar *circumstances* under which it was executed (*viz.*) a residence of eighteen years in the country, at that time of life when impressions are the strongest, a knowlege of the language, and *above all* the personal protection of the Sovereign, have given us advantages which few have ever possessed.'

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We have endeavoured, in copying this passage, to rectify some defects, which do not exist in the corresponding French; the style of which is superior to the English.

The picturesque representations included in the present volume are intitled Voizok (a kind of winter carriage)—Swaika (a game of dexterity)—Pleasure Barges—The Droshka (summer hackney coaches)—Finland Sledge—Milkwomen—Bashkirs (people who live on the borders of the river Ural, and whose name signifies *Bees'-men*)—Lapland Sledge—Summer Kibitka (usual travelling carriage) with a courier—Market of frozen Provisions—Winter Kibitka—Babki (a game played by boys with the small bones of an ox's heel)—Corn Barks—Cozacks—Horn Music—Cozack Dance—Hack Sledges—Fetching Water and rinsing Linen—Ice Cutters—Carriage on Sledges—The Russian Peasant or Boor—Charcoal Barks—Bathing Horses—Gypsies—A Kaback (a house for selling beer and spirituous liquors)—Russian Girl—Winter Carriers—The Village Council—Finn Beggar—Katcheli (swings used at fairs turning on a cylinder between two pillars)—Russian Galliots—Summer Carriers—Tjaliagi—Isba (the dwelling of a village family).

These subjects are sketched with considerable spirit, and will please the artist in this respect: but, in order to convey a correct idea to the ignorant, they certainly require to be more finished.

From the explanations, which are short, we shall copy two or three:

'*Market of frozen Provisions.*—As soon as the winter is fairly set in, the farmers kill all but their breeding stock of cattle, pigs and poultry, and place it in the air to freeze. Fish and game they also freeze in great abundance. This circumstance is particularly favourable to Russia, as by it they save all the expence of winter feeding, and have cheaper and better carriage for bringing it to market. It is brought from the remotest provinces, and large supplies arrive at St. Petersburg, even from the frozen ocean in the north, and from the borders of the Caspian sea, in the south. The great market at St. Petersburg begins just before the Christmas holydays; the frozen provisions, *I* believe, are upon an average about thirty per cent. cheaper than if fresh killed; and it would be difficult even for a nice epicure to perceive the difference. (Pork, fish, and game suffer least by freezing.) Having purchased your winter or weekly stock, you take care not to expose it to any warmth, and just before cooking you thaw it in cold water. The market covers several acres of ground; and from the piles of animals, birds, and fish, with their several skins, feathers, and scales on, presents a most ludicrous appearance.'

A market of this kind can only exist in countries in which the winters are remarkably cold: but it is surprising that, when we are so well acquainted with the effects of congelation in retarding

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retarding animal putrefaction, more ice-houses (which are cheap edifices) are not erected; for what utility in the midst of summer might not be derived from a stock of ice in preserving meat fresh, and in preventing the produce of the dairy from becoming rancid; what benefit would it be to the farmer to be able to cool the atmosphere of his dairy, by throwing in quantities of ice; and how easily would he convey it in a perfect state to the greatest distance, by packing it up in frozen water!—a circumstance which, in this age of improvement and luxury, cannot (we should suppose) be long overlooked. We shall add another explanation relative to the same practice:

'*Ice Cutters.*—One of the comforts in the northern countries is the facility of preserving a great quantity of ice in ice-houses or cellars, during the whole summer. Not a single family, in the cities and villages, is without such a convenience, which serves not merely for cooling liquor at table, but principally for preserving beer, ale, and all sorts of fresh provisions during the summer season. In the months of January and February, when the ice has acquired the greatest thickness, the stock is laid in, and the whole cellar is floored over, or rather filled with cubical pieces from three to four feet diameter, all the interstices are filled up with lesser pieces, and on very cold days the doors are left open, that the frost may consolidate the whole mass. They sometimes surround a closet in the cellar with ice, in which they put the provisions, and which they can lock up.'

This account may furnish a hint not beneath our notice. We now turn to a different subject:

'*Horn Music.*—This music, or rather instrument, peculiar to Russia, was invented about fifty years ago, in the reign of the Empress Elizabeth, by a Mr. Maresch, a native of Bohemia, and one of the musicians of her court. It is a perfect living organ, where every pipe or tone is sounded by one man, who cannot produce any other but that one individual tone on his horn. A complete band of horn musicians consists of near forty performers (never less than twenty-five) who sound the completest symphonies of every kind, from the slowest *largo* to the quickest *prestissimo*, with admirable skill and accuracy. For a full description of this truly interesting musical performance, we refer our readers to the treatise published a few years since by Mr. Henrichs of St. Petersburg, where not only the whole organization of this extraordinary band of musicians is described, but likewise complete specimens are given of the manner in which the notes are set down for each performer.'

A sight of the plate is necessary to obtain a complete idea of this living organ, as it is not improperly called. Each performer blows into a straight hollow cone, which rests on a frame, and which merely supplies the place of the pipe of an organ.

The news-papers inform us that the sequel of this amusing work is published, but we have not yet seen the additional volumes. The present is dedicated to the Emperor Alexander I.

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ART. XII. *Sermons*, by William Laurence Brown, D.D. Principal of Marischall College and University, Aberdeen, &c. &c. 8vo, pp. 500. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co.

IN no species of oratory are dignified plainness and simplicity more requisite than in that of the pulpit; since the professed object of the evangelical instructor is not to shine in tinsel eloquence, "to preach himself," "to parade it in the eye of the vulgar," to dazzle and soothe the imagination of his hearers, but to persuade and impress conviction on his audience by sober reason and argument, by an appeal to their consciences, their natural perceptions, and their acquired knowlege of good and evil. To accomplish this important end, the preacher should manifest sincerity and earnestness; and he should deliver his admonitions in clear and forcible language, imitating St. Paul, who speaks of himself as "using great plainness of speech," or as employing a manly freedom of address. Indeed, the foundation of good preaching may be considered as "laid in the apostles and prophets," whose example in this respect is peculiarly striking and worthy of imitation. If Dr. Brown, in the volume of Sermons now under review, occasionally departs from that noble simplicity which belongs to this species of composition, he manifests an attractive energy, and those illustrative powers which stamp a value on public addresses. His explanations and amplifications contribute to accuracy of conception and enlargement of idea; and his doctrine is replete with lessons of moral and religious wisdom.

The discourses are eighteen in number, and treat of the following important practical subjects:—1. The Duty of a Christian Preacher. 2. Love of God. 3. Believer's Joy. 4. Indifference to Religion. 5. Procrastination in Religious Matters. 6. Vanity of Religion without zeal. 7. Constancy and Perseverance in Religion. 8. Progressive Religion. 9. Prudence and Simplicity. 10. Same subject continued. 11. Ditto concluded. 12. Attachment to Truth and Duty. 13. Danger of Opulence. 14. Danger of Poverty. 15. Pride. 16. Grounds of Pride. 17. Humility. 18. Charity.

This respectable author appears carefully to avoid all subtle and metaphysical researches on obscure and mysterious points: he does not even introduce critical discussions of scriptural texts: but, making morals and the reformation of the heart and actions his principal aim, he consults the general purport and *spirit* of the sacred code; and considering this to be the true and "saving knowledge" of religion, he employs it as occasion demands, without descending to minute inquiries, or perplexing his hearers with the intricacy of the *letter*.

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We must remark, however, that these sermons are too often deficient in peroration or practical conclusion of the subject addressed to the audience; for though the application is sometimes happily enough interwoven with the body of the sermon, in other instances we find it altogether omitted. In the first sermon, for example—"*We preach not ourselves but Christ Jesus,*"—after having shewn the duty of preaching the gospel, and in what it consists, the orator concludes by expressing a flattering expectation of success in his sacerdotal office: but should he not have exhorted his hearers to "receive with meekness the engrafted word?" Should he not have pointed out the importance of *attention* on their side? Again, in the sermon on the evils of poverty, those evils are described at large: but are they then voluntary evils, from which the sufferers can escape by self-exertion? Is it to be presumed that the *aurea mediocritas* is attainable by all who give it the preference? If not, the poor who heard the sermon should have been addressed with the word of patience and consolation, and their hopes excited by the anticipation of a brighter scene.—We will now proceed to a more pleasing part of our office.

The eloquence of Dr. Brown will appear in a passage taken from the sermon "on the Joy of believing and practising the Gospel."

'What joy, short of heaven itself, can equal that which results from the testimony of a pure conscience, and the confident assurance of the divine favour? What higher wish could the heart of man, panting after happiness, form, than to experience within itself, a perpetual calm, unmoved by the storms of passion, unmolested by the intemperate cravings of appetite, untouched by the stings of remorse, while it entertained the firm persuasion that the whole frame of nature was under the dominion of its decided friend? The ignorance of such a mind, with regard to the immediate causes of events, creates no anxiety; for it is under the protection of Infinite Wisdom. Its weakness occasions no fear; for it is under the direction of Omnipotence. Its disappointments produce no vexation; for it can be destitute of no real good, nor suffer any calamity which will not, in the end, contribute to the increase of its happiness!

'These are joys pure and substantial, suited to the dignity of the rational nature, and independent of our *brutal part*. These can never be carried to excess, never succeeded by corroding reflexion. Pleasing once, they please and delight us for ever. These neither birth, nor external events, nor the dispositions of men, nor disease, nor age, can affect. They attend us in society, and forsake us not in solitude. When enemies persecute us, they inspire us with courage, and endue us with strength. When false friends abandon us, they remain. They solace adversity and enhance and adorn prosperous circumstances. They lighten the burdens of life, and disarm death of his terrors! Compared with these, affluence is poor, grandeur is contemptible,

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contemptible, sensual pleasure is disgusting. External circumstances are appropriated to no inherent dignity of character, and are, often, the means of debasing it. But, religious and moral enjoyments are the peculiar privileges of the wise and good, who are not excluded from their share of worldly possessions, and can enjoy them with the highest relish. Still, should these be withheld, supported by their internal resources, by conscious integrity, by the exhilarating sense of the divine favour, and by the glorious prospect of a blessed immortality, the piously wise must, even in adversity and affliction, be possessed of a more abundant store of happiness than can belong to the impious and wicked, placed on the summit of power, basking in the sunshine of prosperity, and resounding the loudest strains of dissolute mirth. Like a rock towering above the deep, the man of piety and virtue beholds the storms of calamity roar around him, without shaking his resolution, or impairing his strength. When the tempest assails those of a contrary character, they are tossed, like the sand, from surge to surge, and, when the calm returns, sink under the weight of their own depravity!'

This quotation displays strength and dignity; and it shews that, where an author is himself animated by his subject, he rises superior to the artifices of oratory.

We particularly recommend the next extract, from a sermon in continuation of the subject of the prudent man in his religious concerns; which displays the liberal sentiments of Dr. Brown, and the candid mode which he recommends for investigating he sense of the sacred writers.

'It is especially in religious concerns, that the character, *wise as the serpent, and harmless as the dove*, is displayed. Here the object is, of all the most important. Here, his own present happiness, and that of those with whom he is connected, are essentially interested, and his eternal salvation is at stake. Here, therefore, just principles, and a corresponding conduct, are matters of the highest magnitude. On this account, he acts not, with regard to religion, as men do in general, receiving, without enquiry, every opinion delivered to them, or thinking that an opinion, once embraced, must never be changed; or, with still greater folly, rejecting all religious doctrines, as equally false, and adopting, in their stead, the presumptuous speculations of sceptical philosophy. His desire to obtain right information, and his openness to conviction, in case of mistake, are proportioned to the importance of the subject. The reason, with which his Creator has endowed him, he employs for the noblest purpose to which it can be directed; the investigation of the Deity's character and perfections, of the course and order of his Providence, and of the rules of his moral government. From the contemplation of natnre he turns to the book of revelation, which furnishes the instruction that reason cannot supply; meditates *on it day and night*, and studies what it contains, not with the prejudice of a pre-conceived system, but with that enlargement of mind, which alone relishes divine truth, and with that simplicity which is suited to the gospel of Christ. In order to succeed in his enquiries,

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enquiries, he uses every aid which the learned, the intelligent, and the pious labours of others can afford him.

'In investigating the meaning of scripture, he attends to manners, to times, and to idiomatical modes of expression. He examines sentences and periods in their connection, builds not general doctrines on expressions limited to particular cases, nor gives a close and literal acceptation to language which is evidently metaphorical. He is not chained to the dead letter, but imbibes the spirit of what he reads, nor fears to employ that good sense which is the soul of all real knowledge, which is the director of all just criticism on religious, as well as all other subjects, and without which learning obscures, and variety of opinion perplexes and bewilders the judgment. While he exercises his own reason in this manner, he implores the *Father of lights to teach him what he sees not*, to dispel his doubts, to brighten his information, to quicken his desire of divine and saving knowledge, to *guide him into all truth*, and to *make him wise unto salvation.*'

Dr. B. has given a full and accurate delineation of the virtue of Christian Humility, in his sermon on that subject; and it is impossible to read it without perceiving the true greatness and elevation which this attainment stamps on the human character:

'Humility is that habit of mind which inclines *to think of ourselves, not more highly than we ought to think, but to think soberly.* It excludes not a proper sense of our own right, whether, by this, be understood what belongs to us by claims strictly legal, or what we are entitled to expect in consequence of the situation we possess in society, or of those becoming decencies which humanity and civilization have established, as due in different degrees from one man to another. Humility is, by no means, to be confounded with that meanness of spirit which submits to indignity for fear of incurring the resentment of the person by whom it is offered, or abandons duty, when personal detriment stands in opposition to the conscientious and virgorous discharge of it. On the contrary, this virtue will induce us to prefer duty to every personal consideration, and resist, in a becoming and temperate manner, every degradation which tends to obstruct our utility by diminishing our influence.

'Humility, directing the mind to God, perceives and acknowledges the insignificance, the baseness, and the aggravated guilt, of every human being, before his Creator. Turning our view towards our fellow-men, it recognizes that equality of right and obligation, which, according to the diversity of relations and circumstances, subsists among all mankind, but also admits and respects every occuring instance of merit, in any individual. As often as our own qualities and virtues are the subjects of consideration, humility disposes us rather to cherish the suggestions of modest diffidence, and the feelings of conscious defect, than to entertain the self-flattery of presumption and the audacity of arrogance.

'From this general description of the virtue in question you already perceive, that it implies a justness and elevation of sentiment, and a certain tone of magnanimity, that dignify the soul in which they exist. It evinces enlargement of conception, and freedom from the

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the fetters of selfishness. It proves that its possessor can expatiate beyond the contracted circle of his own qualities, can view with the discrimination of impartiality, the merits of others, weigh them in the same balance with his own, and allow the former their full value, even when the latter must suffer by the comparison, and has fixed, in his mind, such a standard of excellence, as far surpasses any human attainment. Real worth is the object of his regard, and, wherever he finds it, he *honoureth* it, though in the lowest condition, and in circumstances the most unprosperous. Hence, the humble man thinks meanly of his own qualifications, not because his ideas flow in a shallow stream, and in a narrow channel, but because his conceptions swell to such a height, and are capable of such expansion, that his own importance is sunk, as it were, and lost amidst greater considerations. Such a person is, therefore, possessed of real dignity, and greatness of mind, to which the proud man is an entire stranger. It requires both a sound judgment, and no common degree of moderation, and firmness, to repress the impulses of self-love, in such a manner as to give to our own qualities, no more value than they ought in reason to possess. So difficult is this attainment, that I doubt whether it has ever been completely found in any character merely human. To yield to the suggestions of pride, to suffer the imagination to be filled with her fantastic images, and the understanding blinded by her fascination, requires no exertion, no ability whatever. The weaker, the more ignorant and vicious a person is, the more easily and completely he runs the course which this passion prescribes. But, the cultivation of humility is a work that demands great discernment of the respective claims of those that surround us, the faculty of comparing them with our own, a judicious estimation of merit, and resolution to bend the violence and obstinacy of selfish passions to the nature and reason of things. These energies of mind, and their effects on conduct, command esteem, ensure benevolence and attachment, and evince a character, not only amiable in itself, but useful to mankind Every thing social, generous, and exalted, is much more to be expected from this, than from the opposite disposition. Is any personal hardship to be suffered, any sacrifice made, for the public good? The person who considers himself as unimportant, in comparison of the social body, will be more ready to exhibit such instances of magnanimity, than he whose chief object is his own exaltation. Is it necessary, for the peace of society, to relinquish a favourite scheme or tenet, or, at least, not to press it with a dogmatical spirit of contention? He, who is diffident of his own judgment, is much more likely to adopt such a measure, than the man who supposes his own opinions to be stamped with the mark of infallibility, and who is impelled to maintain them by the intolerant spirit of bigotry and pride. Is it desirable, for the common interest, to accomplish a reconciliation between contending parties? He, who is not inflamed with that resentment which wounded self-sufficiency inspires, will more readily step forward to meet his opponent, in the temper of pacification, than the man who considers the rejection of exorbitant claims as atrocious injustice, and resistance to insolence as an unpardonable crime.

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'While the humble man thus possesses so much internal, by not foolishly grasping at external, dignity, he is also exempt from those meannesses which are inseparable from the pursuits of pride. He is not obliged to have recourse to those despicable devices which are often practised in order to obtain ostentatious advancement, nor is he subject to those debasing emotions which are the result of disappointed ambition. He is free from the bondage of adulation, equally degrading to the flatterer, and the person who is pleased with flattery; between whom there is such mutual dependence, that it is difficult to determine who of the two is the greatest slave. In short, in whatever light we consider the humble disposition, we find it productive of the noblest superiority, and the most solid independence.'

This passage is sufficient to shew that the author has a clear and discriminating mind, and is highly qualified for the task of administring genuine moral and religious instruction. If our limits allowed, we could easily bring forwards many other convincing proofs of Dr. Brown's claim to attention on these serious and important topics: but we must now conclude with strongly recommending the volume to all who are desirous of obtaining just and impressive views of christian duty.—A few peculiarities of expression, and some errors of the press, struck us on perusal.

ART. XIII. *Asiatic Researches:* or Transactions of the Society instituted in Bengal, for inquiring into the History and Antiquities, the Arts, Sciences, and Literature of Asia. Vols. VI. and VII. Printed verbatim from the Calcutta Edition. 8vo. pp. 606. and 508. 12s. 6d. and 12s. Boards. Vernor and Hood, London. 1801. and 1803.

WE are happy in having it in our power to state that the spirit of inquiry, the zeal, and the diligence, which distinguished the Asiatic Society in the life-time of its illustrious founder, remain unabated*. A variety of interesting papers enrich the collection before us; and it contains several important additions to our stock of information relative to India, and the countries bordering on that vast region. If, with regard to extent of knowlege, depth of research, and comprehension of views, they fall short of those memoirs which flowed from the pen of the first president, we meet with several which prove the laudable industry of the writers, and which bring to light valuable facts. We have already had occasion to join in applauses bestowed on the actual government of India for its liberality, and for the patronage and protection which it extends to literature

* See M. Rev. vol. xxxii. N. S. p. 337.

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and science. In this view of it, certainly the administration of the Marquis Wellesley particularly intitles him to the acknowlegements of his country, and to those of men of letters all over the world. To England it belongs to reap the distinction of clearing this fertile and boundless field; and her interest and her fame are equally concerned that the opportunities which she enjoys should not be lost. The present volumes prove that our countrymen resident there are not insensible to the duties which the republic of letters annexes to their situations, nor to the claims on them which the enlightened part of mankind may so reasonably urge. Of this praise, however, which individuals have so honourably earned, we do not discover that either our government or the India Company can demand any share.

In Mr. Hunter's *Narrative of a Journey from Agra to Oujein* we meet with some passages which, as specimens of the fabulous accounts of the East, and of an ingenious explanation of them, we shall here subjoin. Speaking of Oujein, the author says:

'This city called in *Sanscrit*, *Ujjaini* and *Awinti*, or *Avanti*, boasts a high antiquity. A chapter in the *Poorans* is employed on the description of it. It is considered as the first meridian by the *Hindu* geographers and astronomers, so that its longitude from our *European* observatories is an object of some curiosity. By a medium of eleven observations of Jupiter's first and second satellites (taking the times in the ephemeris as accurate) I make its longitude from *Greenwich* 75° 51′ E. Its latitude, by a medium of eight observations, 23° 11′ 13″ N.

'But the city which now bears the name is situated a mile to the southward of the ancient town which, about the time of the celebrated VICRAMADITTYA was overwhelmed, by one of those violent convulsions of nature which, from time to time, alter the surface of our globe. The following narrative of this event, involved in a cloud of fable, is handed down by the *Brahmens*. A certain deity, named GUNDRUFSEIN, was condemned, for an offence committed against the god INDER, to appear on earth, in the form of an ass, but on his entreaty, he was allowed, as a mitigation of the punishment, to lay aside that body in the night, and take that of a man. His incarnation took place at *Oujein*, during the reign of a Rajah, named SUNDERSEIN, and the ass, when arrived at maturity, accosting the Rajah in a human voice, proclaimed his own divine origin, and demanded his daughter in marriage. Having, by certain prodigies, overcome the scruples of the Rajah, he obtained the object of his wishes. All day, in the form of an ass, he lived in the stable, on corn and hay; but when night came on, laying aside the ass's skin, and assuming the form of a handsome and accomplished young prince, he went into the palace, and enjoyed, till morning, the conversation of his beauteous bride. In process of time, the daughter of the Rajah appeared to be pregnant, and as her husband, the ass, was deemed incapable of producing such a state in

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one of the human species, her chastity became suspected. Her father questioned her upon the subject, and to him she explained the mystery. At night the Rajah, by her directions, hid himself in a convenient situation, and beheld the wonderful metamorphosis. He lamented that his son-in-law should ever resume the uncouth disguise, and to prevent it, set the ass's skin on fire. GUNDRUFSEIN perceived it, and though rejoiced at the termination of his exile, denounced the impending resentment of INDER, for his disappointed vengeance. He warned his wife to flee; for, said he, my earthly tenement is now consuming, I return to heaven, and this city will be overwhelmed with a shower of earth. The princess fled to a village at some distance, where she brought forth a son, named VICRAMADITTYA, and a shower of earth falling from heaven, buried the city and its inhabitants. It is said to have been cold earth, and to have fallen in small quantity upon the fields all around, to the distance of several coss, but to a great depth on the towns.

'On the spot where the ancient city is said to have stood, by digging to the depth of from fifteen to eighteen feet, they find brick walls entire, pillars of stone, and pieces of wood, of an extraordinary hardness. The bricks, thus dug up, are used for building, and some of them are of a much larger size than any made in the present, or late ages. Utensils of various kinds are sometimes dug up in the same places, and ancient coins are found, either by digging, or in the channels cut by the periodical rains; having been washed away, or their earthly covering removed by the torrents. During our stay at *Oujein*, a large quantity of wheat was found by a man in digging for bricks. It was, as might have been expected, almost entirely consumed, and in a state resembling charcoal. The earth of which this mound is composed, being soft, is cut into ravines, by the rains; and in one of these, from which several stone pillars had been dug, I saw a space, from twelve to fifteen feet long, and seven or eight high, composed of earthen vessels, broken, and closely compacted together. It was conjectured, with great appearance of probability, to be a potter's kiln. Between this place and the new town, is a hollow, in which tradition says, the river *Sipparah* formerly ran. It changed its course, at the time the city was buried, and now runs to the westward.—

'Such are the present appearances of this ancient city, which above 1800 years ago, was the seat of empire, of arts, and of learning; and it is a task worthy of the present lovers of science to discover the means by which this great revolution has been effected. There are not, as far as my inspection goes, any traces of volcanic scoriæ among the ruins, nor are there in the neighbourhood any of those conical hills, which we might suppose to have formerly discharged fire large enough to produce this effect. As tradition relates, that the river, on that occasion changed its course, an inundation from it might be considered as the cause. And in fact this river, while we were at *Oujein*, did swell to such a height, that great part of the present town, though situated on a high bank, was overflowed, many houses within it, and whole villages in the neighbourhood, were swept away by the torrent. But yet the size of the stream, and the length of its course, the source being only at the distance of fourteen coss, seem unlike to furnish water

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water enough to produce so complete a revolution. Therefore, we must consider the change of its course in conformity to the tradition, rather as the effect than the cause of that event. An earthquake appears one of the most probable causes; and the only objection to it is the entire state in which the walls are found. They are said to be found entire, but I am not able from inspection to determine whether or not they are so entire as to render the supposition of an earthquake improbable. The only remaining cause which I can think of, is loose earth or sand blown up by a violent wind. We have instances in *Europe* of whole parishes being buried by such an accident. The soil of the province of *Málava*, being a black vegetable mould, is unfavourable to this supposition; but even this, when dry, is very light, friable earth: and it may have been greatly meliorated in so long a period of ages. If we might be allowed to call into our aid a tradition, which, though disguised in fable and absurdity, has probably a foundation in fact, it would be favourable to this hypothesis. For none of the other causes would so much resemble a shower of earth as this; and sand driven by the wind would naturally be accumulated to the greatest height, on the towns, where the buildings would resist its farther progress in the horizontal direction.'

One of the most interesting papers, though not derived from original sources, as the author candidly admits, is that of Dr. Buchanan *on the religion and literature of the Burmas*. The worship of Bouddha or Godama is one of the most widely diffused through eastern Asia; it is the prevailing system in the island of Ceylon, in the empire of the Burma monarchs, and in the kingdoms of Siam and Cambodia; it counts besides numerous devotees in China, Cochin China, Japan, and Tonquin; and the author is of opinion with Mr. Chambers, that this worship once extended over all India, and was not wholly rooted out of Hindostan till as late as the ninth, or even the twelfth century of the Christian æra. The Brahmen theology and ritual, as Dr. B. supposes, did not supplant the established worship of Godama in Hindostan till about the time of the birth of Christ; when a change was accomplished which, according to him,

'Proved equally destructive to the prince, and to the people. However idle and ridiculous the legends and notions of the worshippers of BOUDDHA may be, they have been in a great measure adopted by the *Brahmens*, but with all their defects monstrously aggravated: rajahs and heroes are converted into gods, and impossibilities are heaped on improbabilities. No useful science have the *Brahmens* diffused among their followers; history they have totally abolished; morality they have depressed to the utmost; and the dignity and power of the altar they have erected on the ruins of the state, and the rights of the subject. Even the laws attributed to MENU, which, under the form in use among the *Burmas*, are not ill suited for the purpose of an absolute monarchy, under the hands of the *Brahmens* have become the

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most abominable and degrading system of oppression, ever invented by the craft of designing men.'

It may be agreeable to some of our readers to learn the sources whence Dr. Buchanan has derived the information here communicated. He says that

'During my short stay in the *Burma* empire, aware of the interesting nature of the enquiry, I neglected no opportunity of making myself acquainted with the religious tenets of the *Rāhāns*: but from a want of knowledge in the language I should have obtained a very superficial view, had not Captain SYMES given me the use of three treatises, which he procured from VINCENTIUS SANGERMANO, an *Italian* priest residing at *Rangoun*. The first was a Cosmography extracted by SANGERMANO from various *Burma* writings. The second was a translation of a small treatise, written by a late ZARADO or King's confessor, with an intention of converting the *Christians*. The third was a translation of the book of ordination. These three I have united into one connected account, translating them from the original *Latin*, and intermixing them throughout with such observations as my personal acquaintance with the subject, and my reading, have enabled me to collect.'

The cosmography of the Burmas is the most absurd and fantastic that can possibly be imagined, abounding with ingenious extravagancies and puerilities; and it strikes us with surprize that persons endowed with inventive faculties, such as were engaged in constructing these fables, should so idly employ them.

This religion, without admitting a creator, maintains the doctrine of the destruction and reproduction of worlds, and a succession of Deities, originally human Beings, who by sanctity and virtue elevate themselves to Divinity. They count five Deities who have already reigned; the ruling one being Bouddha, or Godama, who has governed for about sixteen hundred years, and who will continue to wield the sceptre till he shall have completed the period of five thousand years. It is a very mild system, admitting no sacrifices in which blood is shed; inculcating the purest morality; and enforcing it by the strongest sanctions of future rewards and punishments.—The reader will remark, in this curious sketch, that the appearance of the God of the Burmas is foretold; that he is born a man; that he becomes a God; that his dispensation is to have an end; that the priests have no endowments, nor civil rank; and that they are seen engaged only in acts of beneficence and charity, in sharing their alms with the pauper and the stranger: alms which are no doubt abundant, but which are perfectly voluntary, as the Priests are prohibited from even soliciting them by means of words or signs. It also recommends proselytism, while it allows the utmost toleration. Certain singularities

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larities of this religion are neatly stated by the author in this passage:

'The religion of the *Burmas* is singular, as exhibiting a nation considerably advanced from the rudeness of savage nature, and in all the actions of life much under the influence of religious opinions, and yet ignorant of a Supreme Being, the creator and preserver of the universe. The system of morals however recommended by these fables, is perhaps as good as that held forth by any of the religious doctrines prevailing among mankind. The motives also by which these fables excite to good works, unite the temporal nature of the *Jewish* law to the future expectations of the *Christian* dispensation: while having adapted the nature of the rewards and punishments to the conception of our present faculties, they have all the power of the *Mohamedan* paradise; and having proportioned these punishments and rewards to the extent of virtue or vice, they possess the justice of the *Roman* purgatory, but without giving to priests the dangerous power of curtailing its duration. BOUDDHA has no doubt given to the bestowing alms on the clergy a conspicuous place among the virtues: but his clergy for support are entirely dependant on these alms; as they have not ventured to propose any stated, lasting, or accumulating property, being annexed to their order; nor have they assumed to themselves any rank or power in the management of secular affairs. Except this elevation of an inferiour virtue to the rank of an important duty, and the merit which we shall find given to the ceremony of pouring forth water on certain occasions, there is perhaps no considerable objection to any of the morality recommended by GODAMA, unless it be his considering it criminal to put any animal to death for the use of man; and his representing celibacy as a kind of virtue, or at least as a more perfect state than marriage: an idea, though common to some of the authors of prevailing religions, yet certainly productive of much misery, and of the worst consequences. It must however be confessed, that the practice of morality among the *Burmas* is by no means so correct, as might be perhaps expected among a people whose religious opinions have such an apparent tendency to virtue. In particular, an almost total want of veracity, and a most insatiable cruelty in their wars and punishments, are observable among them on the slightest acquaintance.'

The passages respecting their writings and books are too curious to be passed over:

'There is no doubt, (the author observes,) that all the different characters of *India*, both on the west and on the east of the *Ganges*, have been derived from a common source: and the *Burma* writing of the whole appears to be the most distinct and beautiful.

'In their more elegant books, the *Burmas* write on sheets of ivory, on very fine white palmira leaves. The ivory is stained black, and the margins are ornamented with gilding, while the characters are enamelled or gilded. On the palmira leaves the characters are in general of black enamel; and the ends of the leaves, and margins, are painted with flowers in various bright colours. In their more common books, the *Burmas* with an iron style engrave their writing on palmira leaves.

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A hole through both ends of each leaf, serves to connect the whole into a volume by means of two strings, which also pass through the two wooden boards, that serve for binding. In the finer binding of these kind of books the boards are lacquered, the edges of the leaves cut smooth and gilded, and the title is written on the upper board, the two cords are *by a knot or jewel* secured at a little distance from the boards, so as to prevent the book from falling to pieces, but sufficiently distant to admit of the upper leaves being turned back, while the lower ones are read. The more elegant books are in general wrapped up in silk cloth, and bound round by a garter, in which the *Burmas* have the art to weave the title of the book.'—

'Every convent has a collection of books; several of which are pretty considerable. The most common copiers are indeed the *Rahans*, who prepare books both for their convents, and for presents to their lay benefactors. These books are kept in chests, much ornamented with gilding, and bits of looking glass, fastened on with lacquer, in the shape of flowers. At *Amarapura* we were shewn a part of the royal library. This is a brick building, surrounded by enclosed courts and temples, which occupy a delightful situation in the N.W. angle of the city. Near it is a small, but most elegant *Kiaung*. To this, at times, the monarch retires; and we were shewn the gilded couch on which he reposes, while the ZARADO reads to him, and instructs him in the duties of religion. The library itself is neither a convenient nor handsome building. The gallery, into which we entered, contained about a hundred chests, gilded on the sides, and lacquered above, with the general title of their contents written in golden letters. The chests were large, and if full, must have contained many thousand volumes. As we saw only a part, I presume that the king's collection is very extensive. He is, indeed, said to be a very intelligent and learned prince. He was very desirous of obtaining some *Brahmen* more learned, than those he had, to instruct him in astronomy: and he had caused the institutes of MENU to be translated from the *English* of Sir WILLIAM JONES. He must therefore have heard of what is pursued among the *Europeans*, in at least oriental literature; and it is to be hoped, that some more useful books may attract his notice: books which might tend to improve the people, and give them more enlightened notions of politics, of the arts, and of science. Hitherto, I suspect, the laws, or religion, of the *Burmas*, have contributed little to the happiness of the people; but fortunately they have not, like those of the *Brahmens*, placed any insurmountable obstacles in the way of national improvement.'

These volumes include two other memoirs relative to the same subject. The difference in the accounts which they contain must be left to future inquirers to settle.

A paper by Captain Wilford, in which he traces the limits of the *antient Caucasus*, accounts for its various names, and points out the affinity between those that are used in the West and those which occur in the Sanscreet, abounds with profound and diversified disquisitions; which our limits will not permit us to analyze, but which will doubtless be regarded

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garded as a high treat by the proficient in Brahmen learning. Eastern tradition, he informs us, corroborated by the sacred books of the Hindus and by Persian authors, assigns as the residence of the primogenitors of the human race, the tract which extends from Balk and Candahar to the Ganges. In this district, Captain W. finds a spot which answers exactly to the Mosaic description of the garden of Eden, and he tells us that he does not believe that the whole globe will furnish another which can present similar pretensions. On like authority, the residence of Adam, after his fall, is stated to have been in the mountainous regions between Cabul and the Ganges.

Mr. Colebrooke's two valuable papers *on the religious ceremonies of the Hindus*, while they display eminent patience of research, and are indicative of a temper highly liberal and philosophical, shew, on the part of the Company's servants, a laudable desire to become acquainted with the habits and prejudices of the natives; a circumstance which we consider as auguring well for the permanence of our interests in India.

Mr. Wrede's account of *the Christians of Malabar* throws very little light on the antient state of that body, and tends to shew that not much which is satisfactory can be discovered with regard to it. He proves, however, in opposition to the Romish false accounts, that these Christians were originally Nestorians; and he makes us acquainted with the artifices and severities by which the greater part of them were subjugated to the yoke of the Pope.

Mr. Richardson's *account of the Bazee-gurs*, a wandering tribe consisting of several casts, is not a little curious. In remarking on the resemblance between them and the Gipsies of Europe, he takes occasion to corroborate the system of Grellman, which represents this latter erratic horde as of Hindoostanee origin. The sect of Bazee-gurs, called also Nuts, furnishes the dancing and tumbling girls of India. Scarcely any European is ignorant of the free and easy manners of these ladies, but Mr. R. informs us that this circumstance proves no obstruction to their marriage; that when they enter into that state they quit their profession; and that it is expected of them at the same time to lay aside their former habits, in which they most generally acquiesce. This people are in the upper parts of Hindoostan called Kunjura, which Mr. R. thinks is likely to have been the stock whence sprang our term conjurer, instead of the Latin word to which it is commonly traced. A people of the same description with the Kunjura, whose language is Hindoostanee, reside near Constantinople, and are called Cingarees. He admits that the verb *juggle* may have been formed from the word *jug*, and occasioned by the use which conjurors made of cups, jugs,

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and mugs: but he observes that, in the Hinduwee dialects, *jugg* is applied to a particular act of worship, which the Brahmens alone can perform, and by virtue of which they pretend sometimes to acquire præternatural powers. In this way, they hope for the success of their *muntur* or incantations; and in imitation of them, he supposes that the Gipsies may have preserved the name, on their arrival in the European territories.

The author describes these people as a species of Moosulmans in religion; that is, he says,

'They undergo circumcision, and at their weddings and burials a *Qazee* and *Moolla* attend to read the service; thus far and no farther are they *Moosulmans*. Of the prophet they seem to have little knowledge, and though in the creed which some of them can indistinctly recollect, they repeat his titles, yet when questioned on the subject, they can give no further account of him, than that he was a *Saint* or *Peer*. They acknowledge a God, and in all their hopes and fears address him, except when such address might be supposed to interfere in *Tansyn*'s department, a famous musician who flourished, I believe, in the Ukbur, and whom they consider as their tutelary deity: consequently they look up to him for success and safety in all their professional exploits. These consist of playing on various instruments, singing, dancing, tumbling, &c. The two latter accomplishments are peculiar to the women of this sect. The notions of religion and a future state among this vagrant race, are principally derived from their songs, which are beautifully simple. They are commonly the production of *Kubeer*, a poet of great fame, and who, considering the nature of his poems, deserves to be still better known *. On every

* He was a weaver by trade, and flourished in the reign of *Sher Shah*, the *Cromwell* of Indian history. There are, however, various and contradictory traditions relative to our humble philosopher, as some accounts bring him down to the time of Ukbur. All, however, agree as to his being a *Soofee* or *Deist* of the most exalted sentiments, and of the most unbounded benevolence. He reprobated with severity the religious intolerance and worship of both *Hindoos* and *Moosulmans*, in such a pleasing poetic strain of rustic wit, humour, and sound reasoning, that to this day both nations contend for the honour of his birth, in their respective sects or tribes. He published a book of poems that are still universally esteemed, as they inculcate the purest morality, and the greatest good-will and hospitality to all the children of Man. From the disinterested yet alluring doctrines they contain, a sect has sprung up in *Hindoostan* under the name of *Kubeer-punt hee*, who are so universally esteemed for veracity and other virtues among both *Hindoos* and *Moosulmans*, that they may be with propriety considered the *Quakers* of this hemisphere. They resemble that respectable body in the neatness of their dress and simplicity of their manners, which are neither strictly *Moohummudun* nor *Hinduwee*; being rather a mixture of the best parts of both. A translation of *Kubeer*'s works, with the life of that sage, and an account of his followers, relative to their tenets and societies, remain still as desiderata in the history of India.'

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occasion of doubt they have a quotation ready from their favourite bard; and in answer to my queries respecting the state of the soul after death, one of them repeated the following stanza:

'Nor soul nor love divine can die,
Although our frame must perish here,
Still longing hope points to the sky;
Thus sings the poet *Das Kubeer*.'

We feel a strong curiosity to be better acquainted with a genius so singular as this poet seems to have been. It cannot be said that the instructions of this philosophical child of nature are not required in Europe, which prides itself on its superior enlightened state; and we hope that it will not be long before some ingenious East Indian pen will supply the desiderata stated in the note.

Captain Cox's paper *on the Burmha game of Chess* will prove highly interesting to the admirers of that first of our sedentary amusements.

[*To be continued.*] Jo.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,
For NOVEMBER, 1804.

NOVELS.

Art. 14. *Fate, or Spong Castle.* By Maria Vanzee. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Parsons.

The misfortunes of Charles and Emma, a fond and faithful pair, are recorded in these pages. The latter is conducted away from her husband by the artifices of a villain, assuming the mask of friendship, and is imprisoned in his castle on the continent. Hence in time she effects her escape, but alas! is pursued, and again is immured in Spong Castle. This evil destiny is affirmed to be the decree of *Fate*, and *Fate* ordered that the hapless victim should die in her prison. We know nothing of the nature and influence of this despotic tyrant: but, if such be his merciless sway, we shall ardently pray that it may not extend beyond the other side of the water. Man.

Art. 15. *The Union.* By Miss Minifie. 12mo. 3 Vols. 9s. sewed. Dutton.

Even the title of this novel furnishes an intimation to the reader, that the business of *love* will form a material part of the narrative; and that probably, after various difficulties and distresses, the happy pair will arrive, in the end, at the completion of their wishes. A perusal of the volumes will prove this to be a just anticipation. The circumstances attending the flight of Irenea, her confinement in the lonely island, and her artifice to effect her escape by dropping laudanum into the glass of Lord Rusborough and sending him to sleep, will amuse, perhaps, as far as they may be considered to be probable.

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The religious reflections, frequently recurring, will not be controverted by the pious reader; and the occasional attempts to describe the beauties of nature will be commended, at least, if they are not approved as perfect models in their kind. Mon.

Art. 16. *A Peep at the World*; or the Children of Providence. By Harvey Sinclair. 12mo. 3 Vols. 12s. sewed. Parsons.

The unaffected ease with which this author delivers his history, and the true sensibility and natural feeling which he discovers, together with many judicious reflections on the manners and conduct of mankind, intitle his performance to commendation. Perhaps, if fewer episodes had been interwoven, the tale would have met with more admirers. We perceive, however, that Mr. Sinclair, whoever he may be, is a man of good education and of good understanding. The events related are generally more or less of a serious cast: but some are animated and lively. Do

Art. 17. *Virtuous Poverty*, by Henry Siddons. 12mo. 3 Vols. 13s. 6d. Boards. R. Phillips.

It is the amiable object of Mr. Siddons, in this narrative, to inculcate a strict regard for virtuous conduct in the various relations of life; and particularly, in the example of Henry and Cecilia, to promote a veneration for mutual love and domestic harmony, under every trial of adversity and every struggle of poverty. How far these benevolent views will be crowned with success, by means of this publication, is to us rather a doubtful speculation. The tale does not fascinate the reader so artfully as we could wish; and the egotism, so frequently occurring, brings the remembrance of the author to the mind more forcibly than that of the characters which compose the history. In speaking of 'Barbadoes in India,' we almost suspect that the author confounds the geography of the East and West: but probably this is mere oversight. The introductory chapters, after the manner of Fielding, are not composed with his skill. This is, however, to be considered as a first attempt of the author; and we shall look forwards for some future specimen, in which his talent for novel-writing may appear more ripened and matured. Do

Art. 18. *Harry Clinton*. A Tale for Youth. 12mo. pp. 450. 4s. 6d. Boards. Johnson.

All the materials of this interesting and instructive tale are selected from that celebrated production of Mr. Brooke, "The Fool of Quality," omitting those parts which are too wild and extravagant to intitle the original work to general attention. Mrs. Mary Hays, the editor (as appears from the Dedication) has attempted, by compressing the narrative to its present form, to exhibit for the instruction of youth a history of the practical education and culture of the heart. The volume certainly contains various and important lessons of virtue and benevolence; and several of the scenes make a powerful appeal to the sensibility of the reader: but whether some traits in the character of Mr. Fenton and his pupil Harry will not still be considered as bordering on excess in point of generosity, we shall leave to others to determine; as there appears little danger of stimulating youth to transgress

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transgress the bounds of moderation in the active duties of charity. Perhaps, however, a more useful lesson might be inculcated, by furnishing an example which the ability of young readers in general might enable them to copy.

One passage occurs in this volume, which we wished had either been altered or omitted. We allude to the account of an English court of justice, where the Judge is represented as prejudiced against the innocent prisoner, and attempting to influence the jury to find her guilty. On the contrary, our youth should be taught to look up with reverence and profound respect to those venerable, learned, and uncorrupt characters, who preside over and adorn our courts of justice.

Mar.

Art. 19. *The Eve of San Pietro.* 12mo. 3 Vols. 10s. 6d. sewed. Cadell and Davies.

The wonders of an Italian castle, the mysterious character of its possessor, and the deep depravity of a confidential monk, furnish a variety of matter in these volumes to entertain and terrify the mind of a romantic reader. It will readily be perceived that the writer has chosen a path already beaten, and perhaps sufficiently explored by her fair precursor. If we had not read the works of Mrs. Radcliffe, we might have been induced to give considerable credit to the author of the Eve of San Pietro for ingenuity, and invention of marvellous scenes and events: but if we cannot avoid considering this as a work of *imitation*, the degree of merit, which attaches to it, is proportionably diminished; and more particularly since the copy is in many respects inferior to the original. Yet we with pleasure observe that this writer has talents of no ordinary standard; and as this production is a first attempt, we shall point out, for the information of the author, a few instances in which revision and correction are requisite. Vol. I. at p. 62. from the want of proper stops, (an omission frequently recurring in other places,) the sense is very ambiguous in the expression 'for three hours,' &c. At page 68, a false concord—'thou shall:' at page 78, *thou* and *you* are confounded. Page 197, *laying* for *lying*. Vol. II. p. 267, Viola draws a Tasso from her pocket, although she had been shut up without any supply of that kind. Vol. III. p. 3. egress is used for ingress. This list will be ample enough to suggest to the author the necessary corrections, to which we allude. We must add that there is too much of the *marvellous* in this tale, and the 3d volume is almost occupied in accounting for the previous prodigies.

Do.

AGRICULTURE.

Art. 20. *Observations on the Utility of cutting Hay and Straw, and bruising Corn, for feeding of Animals*, arranged and elucidated, not by chemical Test, but agricultural practice; with a full and particular Description of the best Machines for that Purpose; with approbationary Certificates annexed. Also a new and valuable Discovery (of the utmost Importance to the agricultural World) by which Means every Farmer may separate the most nutritious Parts of his Straw, for feeding Animals, from the Refuse, which may

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may be used for Litter. By W. Lester, Farmer and Engineer, Piccadilly *. 8vo. pp. 34. 5s. sewed. Symonds.

Puffing is become almost as common among the inventors of agricultural implements as among the venders of quack medicines; and certificates of approbation are published in one instance in the same manner as certificates of cures are furnished in the other. Mr. Lester speaks of himself as a person who has made machines in agriculture his study through life, who has succeeded beyond all others in improving the Harrow, and who has expended nearly one thousand pounds in bringing to perfection a chaff-cutter. To recommend or advertise this last-mentioned implement (the price of which is £3*l.* 10*s.*) is the object of the pamphlet before us; in which the inventor gives two plates representing his patent straw-cutter, argues its utility, and proudly displays various testimonies in its favour. It works with a fly, to which one knife or cutter is affixed, and is no doubt a *handy* machine: but, had we not been let into the secret that *nearly one thousand pounds had been spent in experiments*, we should have thought that it ought to be afforded at a lower price.

Of the valuable discovery announced with so much display in the title, we shall allow Mr. Lester to give his own account:

'It will be found by examining the straw of corn, that the greater part of this substance is contained in the cavity of the straw immediately above the knots, in the form of pith, which being scraped out with a penknife, when the knots are cut longitudinally, and put upon the tongue, the sweets are immediately perceptible. This may be found in all straw in a dry state, but much more when it is green. The under part of the knot does not contain any of this sweet pithy substance visible to the naked eye, but appears an empty space, void of any substance; so that it seems as if the valves contained in the knot had closed, and prevented the superabundant support of the seed from subsiding to its parent earth. This pithy saccharine substance, I presume, was in a liquid state at the time the seed was perfecting, which, when completed, the efforts of nature probably stop, and congelation takes place; by which means these reservoirs become charged with the above sweet nutritive substance. May this not be the case with all our grasses that stand to perfect their seed, or that are cut before their seed is ripe? If so, the same means I propose to separate the more nutritious parts of straw, will hold good with regard to hay, by which means a richer food may be obtained, next unto corn, for animals, than has yet been discovered in the annals of agriculture. Be this as it may, I must leave it for practice to demonstrate, and content myself with giving the hint.'—

'The mode of operation is simple, and the expence trifling, within the reach of every farmer; it is only to cut his straw, and either heave it down before a wind, or throw it with a shovel, which will always separate the heavy substance from the light, in exactly the same way as dressing of corn. The separation will be complete if the straw is cut an inch long.'—

* An Engineer living in Piccadilly presents no new idea, but we are now first informed of its being a residence for *Farmers*.

'This,

'This, perhaps, may be objected to in some situations on the account of the refuse being cut too short for litter; but I do not believe this will be by any means a general objection.'—

'I conclude, it will make no difference to the beast whether his bed be long or short, so that he can obtain the greatest quantity of nutriment from the smallest quantity of food.'

With submission to Mr. Lester, we apprehend that neither man nor horse, after a good supper, would say that it made no difference to him whether he laid down on pins and needles, or on a soft bed of feathers or straw.

Moy.

POETRY.

Art. 21. *Adversity*; or, the Miseries of the Seduced, a Poem; interspersed with Narratives. To which is subjoined a Military Tale, (founded on a real Occurrence) called Henry and Eliza. Humbly inscribed to Her Royal Highness the Duchess of York. By W. H. Poulett. 4to. 3s. 6d. Darton and Harvey.

As it is to be regretted that poverty of spirit should be sometimes found to accompany the possession of wealth, while the "Willing Mind" is too often destitute of the means of doing good; so in regard to Poetry, it occasions us pain whenever we observe the "rich vein" denied to a generous and compassionate disposition.—The meritorious object of this poem is to plead the cause of suffering humanity; and to warn the innocent and unwary, of the sorrows and guilty pangs which vice entails on her deluded votaries:—but to what purpose is the author abundant in charity and tender regard for his brethren, when his poetical stores are so scanty and defective? Let us examine his little stock of goods.—1st, With regard to the *quantity* of words, as in 'emigrated' and numbers of others, it is false. 2d, Choice of expression, as in 'Yelp,' and *varment* for vermin, it is low and vulgar. 3d, The metre is frequently violated. 4thly, The Rhythm is far from harmonious; and 5thly and lastly, The Rhyme is often as incorrect as the Rhyme of a ballad: viz.—'the wretched she.'

'from public infamy.'

- - - - - - 'These

- - - - - - 'Peace.'

The *pathos* and elegant blending of *you* and *thou*, in the following lines, raised our *admiration*:

'Oh! Fell SEDUCER turn *thy* treacherous head
And Weep in Tears of Blood—the woes *you* shed!
Will nought thy CENTAUR Appetite restrain,
Till vengeance dooms *thee* to eternal pain!
MONSTER! 'tis not *alone* the *hapless she*,
But *Families* their Ruin owe to *thee!*
If for yourself *you* feel, Oh! think betimes,
E'er too far steep'd in Blood—give o'er *your* Crimes;
Of this be certain, either soon, or late,
Heaven's reddest Wrath—Will surely be *your* Fate!'

But for an example of all in one view, (or for an epitaph in a country church-yard,) we should select the following lines:

'His

'His hoards of wealth to Strangers then *is* given,
Yet Dies—With the daring thought, of meeting Heaven.'

The author's intentions, however, are benevolent and humane; and perhaps among some, into whose hands it may fall, this *species of poetry* may produce the impression which it aims to make. Mag.

Art 22. *The Wild Wreath.* Dedicated (by Permission) to H.R.H. the Duchess of York, by M. E. Robinson. Crown 8vo. pp. 240. 7s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1804.

Several of the pieces which compose this collection flowed from the pen of the late Mrs. Robinson, mother of the fair Editor; and the other contributions are written by Mr. Merry, Mr Lewis, Mr. Twisleton, Miss Seward, &c. The general titles are *Tales*, *Fugitive Pieces*, *Anacreontic Pieces*, and *Fairy Visions*.

The *Foster-child*, the *Wintry day*, the *Sorrows of Memory*, *Harvest Home*, and some other effusions of considerable merit, were already known to the lovers of English poetry, but we are indebted to Miss R. for binding them into a graceful garland. The few pieces which aim at wit are the least attractive in the collection.—Among those that are now printed for the first time, we have to notice the wild romantic tale of the 'Lady of the Black Tower,' by Mrs. Robinson. The second part thus commences in a bold and impressive strain:

'Now the merry bugle horn
Thro' the forest sounded far;
When on the lofty tow'r, forlorn,
The Lady watch'd the evening star;
The evening star that seem'd to be
Rising from the dark'ned sea!

'The Summer sea was dark and still,
The sky was streak'd with lines of gold,
The mist rose grey above the hill,
And low the clouds of amber roll'd:
The Lady on the lofty tow'r
Watch'd the calm and silent hour.

'And, while she watch'd, she saw advance
A ship, with painted streamers gay:
She saw it on the green wave dance,
And plunge amid the silver spray;
While from the forest's haunts, forlorn,
Again she heard the bugle horn.

'The sails were full; the breezes rose;
The billows curl'd along the shore;
And now the day began to close;—
The bugle horn was heard no more,
But, rising from the wat'ry way,
An airy voice was heard to say:

"Watch

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" Watch no more the evening star;
Watch no more the billowy sea;
Lady, from the Holy War
Thy lover hastes to comfort thee:
Lady, Lady, cease to mourn;
Soon thy lover will return."

' Now she hastens to the bay:
Now the rising storm she hears:
Now the sailors smiling say,
" Lady, Lady, check your fear:
Trust us, Lady; we will be
Your pilots o'er the stormy sea."

' Now the little bark she view'd
Moor'd beside the flinty steep;
And now, upon the foamy flood,
The tranquil breezes seem'd to sleep.
The moon arose; her silver ray
Seem'd on the silent deep to play.'—

' *The Felon*,' by Mr. Lewis, labours under the disadvantage of a long *straddling* measure of fourteen syllables. This circumstance alone produces an effect bordering on the ludicrous, where feelings of a very different description were intended to be excited:

' Where shall I turn? the wretch exclaims; where hide
my shameful head?
How fly from scorn? Oh! how contrive to earn my
honest bread?' &c.

The Anacreontics are original, and pretty, though not altogether in the style and spirit of Anacreon.

This volume is elegantly printed, and deserves to be distinguished from the promiscuous herd of ordinary compilations. **Muir.**

Art. 23. *The Powers of Genius*, a Poem, in Three Parts. By John Blair Linn, A. M., Co-Pastor of the first Presbyterian Church in Philadelphia. 12mo. pp. 127. Printed at Philadelphia.

Much strength, both of reasoning and of poetical talent, is manifested in this composition on the powers of Genius; and the author appears to have considered the subject under the united aid of studious meditation and extensive reading. Persons of taste will give him great credit for this performance, as well as for the appendix and smaller poems annexed: but they will discover at the same time that the rhyme is not always correct, nor the *quantity* of words always regarded. For instance—(shade—maid;) known, throne, &c.; at p. 49. the penultima of Prospĕro is made long. A fastidious reader will probably object to the epithet—*stilly*, page 31. and he will question the power of a whisper to *flit*, which expresses the unsettled flutter of a bat. We give one short extract, as an instance of this poet's felicity of manner:

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'Thou murmuring breeze! O bear upon thy wing
That strain, which flows from Petrarch's mournful string.
O speak those charms which Petrarch's Laura wears!
O breathe that passion which he mourn'd in tears!
Thou stream of Time! bear in thy course, along,
The early *lustre* of Italian song!
To lone Vaucluse let all the loves repair!
And tell their sorrows to her listening air;
There oft, when Cynthia threw her midnight beam
Along the banks, and o'er the silver stream,
Unhappy Petrarch wander'd through the vale,
Wept with the dews, and murmur'd with the gale!
'With all the learning of his favour'd isle,
With Genius, basking in the Muse's smile,
See pensive Gray awake the Theban lyre,
And soar to heights where Pindar would expire!
When tolls the curfew the departing day,
"And lowing herds wind slowly o'er the lea,"
Mark how, in thoughtful mood, he takes his way
Thro' the lone church-yard, to his favourite tree!
"Or see him by the green woodside along,
While homeward hies the swain, his labour done,
Oft as the woodlark pipes his farewell song,
With wistful eyes pursue the setting sun."
'Hear Cowper raise his bold and moral song,
Arm'd with sweet tenderness, in virtue strong;
Truth, while he sings, lets fall her honest tears!
And mad Oppression startles while he hears!
'When Fiction lifts her mirror to the eye,
And mimic lightnings from the surface fly—
When, by the magic of her winning charms,
She draws her captives to her downy arms,
She gives Delusion all the grace of Truth,
And thrills the fancy of enraptur'd youth!
Then Genius manifests her varied art,
And reigns the mistress of th' impassion'd heart.
Thou tyrant of the heart, sublime Rousseau!
Thou son of Genius, and thou sport of Woe!
Why did not virtue prompt thy wond'rous page,
And purest love repress thy lawless rage?
Thine Eloisa then had reign'd alone,
And held the sceptre of the fairy throne.'

It can hardly be said, perhaps, of *lustre*, that it floats on a stream: a luminous body may float, but the quality of the body cannot go alone. Separate, however, from these minutiæ of criticism, the author has sterling merit in many respects.

Art. 24. *Martial Effusions of Antient Times*; addressed to the Spartan Hosts, to excite them to Valour and Discipline in their Conflicts with the Messenians; and prescribed as permanent Recitations by the Republic of Lacedæmon to inspire their Youth with

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warlike sentiments. From the Fragments of Tyrtæus. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

In a season of public danger, it is a praiseworthy undertaking to attempt to stimulate the courage and fortitude of our fellow-countrymen, by every appeal that can be made to their feelings; whether it be by the persuasions of reason, by the charms of eloquence, or by the enthusiasm which fired the bosoms of the bards of old. The strains of Tyrtæus are well adapted to this purpose: they have been repeatedly rendered to us in English; and this imitation of their martial spirit will doubtless contribute to serve "the good old cause." Man[s]

MEDICAL.

Art. 25. *A Statement of Evidence from Trials by Inoculation of Variolous and Vaccine Matter;* to judge of the Question, whether or not a Person can undergo the Small-Pox after being affected by the Cow-Pock. By the Physicians of the Original Vaccine Pock Institution, established Dec. 1799. 8vo. pp. 87. 2s. Cuthell. 1804.

The evidence here brought forwards was collected in consequence of the late publication of Mr. Goldson of Portsmouth *. The opinion entertained by the authors of it, respecting the preventive powers of cow-pox, was not altered by the numerous instances of failure which have at different times, but particularly of late, been laid before the public: because it was generally found, when they had an opportunity of personally examining such cases, 'either that some other eruption was mistaken for small-pox, or that the cow-pock had not in reality been previously excited.' They conceived it, however, to be necessary, in order to satisfy the public mind, which had been alarmed by the contravening evidence on this subject, to reconsider the questioned point; and for this purpose to institute a set of experiments, on patients who had passed through the cow-pox at an early period of the vaccine institution. These trials, shew, 'that above fifty persons who had been vaccinated three to five years ago, and ten who had been vaccinated at a later period, were incapable of taking the small-pox by inoculation in circumstances chosen as most favourable for infection. For many of the subjects were exposed to the effluvia from small-pox patients; they were all inoculated in three times the usual number of places; they were all inoculated with efficacious and recent matter: and with many of them unusual pains were bestowed to introduce the matter quite fluid immediately from the variolous patient. In these it seems fair to calculate that not more than one, or at most two, of these sixty persons would have escaped the small-pox, if they had not already gone through that disease, or its vicarious affection, the cow pock.'

In some of the experiments, which are in general detailed at length, the local affection from the small-pox matter 'resembled many cases of the pock of the vaccine;' and in none of them were 'appear-

* This article should have immediately followed the account of Mr. Goldson's and Mr. Ring's pamphlets, pp. 252—261 of this Review, but could not be prepared in time.

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ances remarked from the variolous insertions, which did not occasionally occur from the vaccine ones; except that the effects were in general less evident from the latter, than the former.' The inference deducible from these experiments must be admitted to be in complete opposition to Mr. Goldson's hypothesis, that the security of cow-pox ceases after a period of two or three years; and we have no doubt (though we are of opinion that such experiments cannot be too much multiplied) that the result of them must have a considerable tendency to remove from the public mind, any impression which may have been made by that gentleman's pamphlet, unfavourable to vaccination. We consider it as a duty which Mr. Goldson owes to the public, and to the profession, to take the earliest opportunity, after what he may regard as a sufficient number of experiments of this kind, with similar results, to state his conviction that his hypothesis has been successfully combated; and we are the more inclined to indulge this idea, from the appearance of candour with which his remarks are accompanied.

The authors of the present publication represent themselves as entertaining 'no reasonable doubt,' that the 3d case mentioned by Mr. Goldson was, 'according to the statement, a case of small-pox after the cow-pock;' yet they feel themselves justified in believing that he has deceived himself as to this case; and they cannot therefore admit this, or any others of a similar kind, as 'evidence of the small-pox at any period whatever, subsequent to the cow-pock.' As they are anxious, however, to keep terms with the gentlemen to whom they are opposed, they very civilly declare (what we feel it impossible to grant) that those gentlemen may have been thus deceived without the imputation of 'inaccuracy, inattention, or blameable ignorance.' They inform us, nevertheless, that in one out of more than half a dozen instances, where such was said to be the case, the small-pox actually occurred, subsequent to cow-pox inoculation, at the *original* vaccine pock institution; and for this occurrence they attempt to account, by stating that in that case, 'there was much reason to believe only a local affection had been produced from the vaccine inoculation.' A suspicion of this kind, however, if confirmed, would raise a much more serious objection to cow-pox, than the admission of an occasional failure in its preventive effect; because it would imply the want of any unequivocal test, by which the existence of the complaint can be discovered. What the evidence was, which induced the authors to believe that some of the phænomena, which take place in ordinary circumstances, were wanting in the case in question, they do not inform us. If the progress of the vesicle and areola had not been marked by the usual appearances, they would not have been justified in asserting that small-pox had occurred after cow-pox: but, if those appearances were present, the supposition of a perceptible degree of constitutional affection being necessary, in order to insure the preventive effects of cow-pox, appears to us gratuitous. In many of the cases which were made the subjects of inoculation with variolous matter, by the physicians to the original vaccine pock institution, no constitutional affection was manifest at the time of going through the cow-pox; and yet they were secured from the

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susceptibility of small-pox. If we therefore require the existence of any other test of that affection having taken place, than the regular progress of the vesicle and areola, we not only adopt an idea which is in itself hypothetical, and, if admitted, would be injurious to the practice, but encourage a degree of scepticism that is perfectly inconsistent with attention to the real nature of evidence. Such may be an effectual, but is certainly not a philosophical way of silencing any reports unfavourable to the permanent security of persons who have passed through cow-pox. We do not therefore consider the ingenious authors of this statement as having shewn a striking proof of judgment, in the mode in which they attempt to account for the occurrence of small-pox after cow-pox: but we feel ourselves much indebted to them for the alacrity with which they have performed a very important duty to the public, in examining and shewing the futility of that hypothesis to which their attention has been lately called.

Art. 26. *Minutes of some Experiments to ascertain the permanent Security of Vaccination against exposure to the Small-Pox.* To which are prefixed some Remarks on Mr. Goldson's Pamphlet, with an Appendix containing Testimonials and other Communications from many of the most respectable medical Men in this Neighbourhood. By Richard Dunning, Surgeon and Secretary to the Plymouth Dock Jennerian Society. 8vo. pp. 120, 3s. Murray.

A very small number of cases only is here mentioned as having been subjected to the test of variolous inoculation, after having passed through the cow-pox; and of these, there seem to be but two which were vaccinated a sufficient time previously to the insertion of variolous matter, to be admitted by those on whom Mr. Goldson's pamphlet has made any impression, as fair experiments of the truth of his hypothesis. In none of the cases was small-pox produced. Mr. Dunning's experience, and that of his correspondents, afford numerous instances of patients, who had gone through the cow-pox, being repeatedly exposed, at various periods, to small-pox contagion, with impunity; and hence any farther test of unsusceptibility might be conceived, with much appearance of truth, to be unnecessary: but if, in compliance with Mr. Goldson's suggestion, the author thinks it right to adopt the means recommended by that gentleman, in order to remove any doubts which may exist in the public mind, with regard to the permanent security of cow-pox, we naturally look for a greater number of trials than are here related.

A postscript contains the results of four experiments made by Dr. Stewart of Plymouth, in order to examine the validity of Mr. Goldson's hypothesis.—One of the children whom he inoculated with small-pox matter had been affected with cow-pox more than two, and three of them more than three years before.—In all those cases, several pimples appeared on the 6th day: but on the 9th one of them was seized with symptoms of the eruptive fever of small-pox, and at the same time had some erruptions 'more resembling approaching variolæ,' says Dr. Stewart, 'than any we had yet seen.'—Much fever, some delirium, and great general indisposition were present. The report of these cases is in some degree imperfect and indistinct: but

it appears that; on the third day, the eruptions were advancing to a state of maturation; and on the 10th we are told, the child 'is now free from complaint, and the eruptions are dying away.' No intermediate report is given.—Two children who had not had the small-pox, nor the cow-pox, were inoculated with matter taken from the above mentioned patient, on what we have reported as the 3d day, but the result of this inoculation was not decided when Dr. Stewart made out his account of these cases.

At the same time that these trials were instituted, Dr. Stewart's daughter, who had been affected with small pox by inoculation six years before, was again inoculated with variolous matter; and an eruption, which was attended with febrile symptoms, came on at a time and in a manner similar to the particulars above related of the vaccinated patient.

Our readers may be desirous of knowing what impression has been made on the mind of Dr. Jenner by the Portsmouth cases; and the following extract of a letter from him to the author, dated July 22, 1804, will shew, that he deemed it adviseable to subject his earliest cases of cow-pox to the variolous test. This he has not done however by inoculation, but by exposure to contagion.

'The trials (says he, I have lately instituted here, assisted by my nephews, I can assure you have been severe ones—but thank heaven they have been decisive, and, without any other aid, must completely overthrow the argument of Mr. G. All the subjects that I could collect who were vaccinated at the commencement of my practice here, men, women, and children, have been lately exposed to the small pox, in a state as highly contagious as possible—they were taken into a room and went to the bedside of a woman covered from head to foot with pustules. All have escaped unhurt, *except at the sight of the ghastly object.* A great number of these had been inoculated six years ago. Phippe too, the boy on whom I made the first trial more than eight years ago, has again been put to the test with impunity.' Yell.

Art. 27. *Medical Reports of Cases of Inoculation and Re-inoculation with variolous and vaccine Matter:* With some Cases of casual Exposure to Small-Pox Contagion, subsequent to Vaccination. By John Rollo, M. D. Surgeon General and Inspector of the Medical Departments of the Ordnance. 8vo. 1s. Mawman. 1804.

Dr. Rollo professes himself anxious to avoid drawing any inference from the cases which he here presents to us, considering it as improper, from the importance of the subject, to decide on the permanent efficacy of cow-pox as a prevention of small-pox, from a few experiments. He tells us, however, in his conclusion, that, as far as his experience extends in vaccination, 'it is completely supported;' and that, 'from every analogy it is reasonable to suppose, that time will establish the demonstration of its full and permanent power.' Dr. R.'s evidence appears to us extremely scanty; since, of 550 cases vaccinated by him, and regarded as having passed through the cow-pox in the regular way, nine only have been subjected to the test of variolous inoculation. None of those took the small-pox, though in some a general indisposition occured; and in one an eruption of a few pimples or pustules on the leg and arm, which did not maturate.

A case

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A case is reported, in which small-pox took place from casual infection, in a child who was stated to have passed through the cow-pox 20 months before: but we have fewer particulars relative to it, than are requisite to authorise an opinion on the fact.

Some particulars not directly bearing on the point in question we omit to mention, and shall only farther observe that this pamphlet carries with it the marks of unjustifiable haste. Yell.

Art. 28. *Experiments proving Vacciolation or Cow-Pox Inoculation to be a permanent Security against Small-Pox*; with Facts and Remarks. By Samuel Hill, Surgeon, Town of Portsea, and Surgeon in the Royal Navy. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Highley. 1804.

Ten cases, it is here stated, which went through cow-pox in a satisfactory way in the years 1800 and 1801, were inoculated with variolous matter in July and August last, but without effect. Do

Art. 29. *A Brief Essay on the peculiar Advantages of the Flexible Metallic Bougies*, in the Treatment of Strictures in the Urethra and the Evacuation of the Urinary Bladder. By W. Smyth, the Inventor and sole Proprietor. 6th Edition enlarged and corrected. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson.

The opinion, which may be formed on the utility of the Bougies here recommended, must depend more on the result of actual trials, than on any reasoning which may be employed concerning their probable effects: but, with the respectable testimonials in their favour, which some of the most judicious practitioners in London have given, we consider them as well deserving of attention. They are of a metallic composition, the nature of which the author does not specify, and are of two kinds:

'The first of these are solid, but, at the same time, they are as flexible as those made of common plaster, and are possessed of strength and firmness enough to overcome any obstruction that ought to yield to pressure. They are also of so smooth a surface, that they may be introduced with ease, and so durable, that one case, containing twelve bougies of different sizes, with a little care *, will last a surgeon in full practice for many years.

'The second are hollow, and of sizes similar to the solid ones, furnished with a stilet, or wire of the same metal, for cases where it is judged proper to let them remain in the bladder; but in strictures requiring greater force than can be exerted with these bougies (as they are considerably softer than the silver catheter), a temporary brass or iron wire will give them sufficient strength for their introduction †.

'These

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* 'This caution is absolutely necessary to be attended to, as from No. 5 to No. 12, inclusively, are made hollow, and stopped at both ends, for the purpose of giving them lightness and flexibility, and if bruised they cannot be repaired: but are nevertheless to be considered as solid, in opposition to the hollow bougies, or catheters, which are open at both ends.'

'† It rarely happens that a brass or iron wire is wanted upon this occasion; but when it is, care should be taken that it be strong enough

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'These bougies, both solid and hollow, may be continued in the passage any length of time without danger of breaking, or giving the least pain *; they cannot be affected by the warmth of the parts to which they are applied, nor be acted upon by the stricture, when there is a spasmodic contraction of the urethra; nor by the urine, which is always the case when the plaster bougie, or elastic gum catheter, is used. They may be had of any size or degree of pliability, and when tarnished they may be repolished with a piece of shamoy leather and a little whiting: they are of a conical form, and their action is purely mechanical.'

Yell.

Art. 30. *The Veterinarian's Pocket Manual*: containing brief Directions for the Prevention and Cure of Diseases in Horses; including important Observations on the Glanders, together with a Table of different Degrees of running, commonly denominated Glanders; and a Treatise on some of the most common operations. By M. La Fosse, Member of the National Institute, of the Medical Society, and principal Farrier to the Army in France. 12mo. 6s. boards. Badcock.

Great as is the reputation of M. La Fosse in veterinary medicine, we are not able to discover, in the present manual, any merit which particularly distinguishes him as a scientific practitioner: but, as we are informed by the translator that the most valuable part of the work is the chapter on Glanders, we deem it right to give our readers a summary of the author's ideas on this subject.—He distinguishes this disorder into three sorts:

'The first sort, which is the glanders, the real glanders, the glanders properly so called: the second is nothing more than some disorder circulating in the mass of blood; and the third may be denominated the farcy glanders. Glanders of the first kind is not infectious, except it be complicated with other disorders, but this is seldom the case, and we may daily witness horses thus attacked, abandoned as incurable, or with more humanity put to death. On the contrary, glanders of the second species is communicable, because the horse, besides running at the nose, and becoming glanderous, has likewise shancres, and these shancres appear to be the only proximate causes of contagion.

'The third species of glanders is in like manner contagious, because it not only occasions a running of the nose, but the tumefied glands, and the cartilage, of the nose are shancred, and likewise certain parts of the body are covered with lumps and shancres, which latter characterise the farcy glanders, the most dangerous disorder of

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to preserve the form of the catheter, but not to create any difficulty in withdrawing it. It ought likewise to be observed that during the introduction, the wire having no stop to it, should not be pressed upon too much, lest it be forced through the end of the bougie into the urethra.

'* This I assert from my own knowledge, having worn one of the larger sizes, in some measure for the sake of the experiment, eight or nine hours at a time without irritation.'

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the three, but not the most common. These two latter species of glanders are infectious, because the disease resides principally in the blood; but the glanders of the first species, the real glanders, the glanders properly so called, is not in any wise contagious, although it most frequently occurs.

'The second and third species are incurable, but the last only is mortal. But as to glanders of the first sort, it is neither incurable nor mortal. In the first place, we repeat, this disease is not mortal in any case, and a horse attacked by it is in the same situation as a man who has lost the sense of smelling; it is the loss of a sense, and the loss of a sense prevents neither the man nor the horse from fulfilling all the animal functions; for as we daily observe men affected with ulcerated noses preserve an otherwise sound constitution, and even look jolly, so we may observe a glandered horse preserve his strength and health.

'Secondly; it is incurable only when inveterately confirmed, but when taken in an early stage, its progress may be stopped with very little trouble.

'Thus we find, that glanders of the first species, the real glanders, glanders properly so called, absolutely consists of nothing more than the loss of the sense of smelling. Its cure may be readily effected by frequent bleedings, and fumigations with marshmallow decoction. Hence may be estimated the little necessity there is for killing horses attacked by this disorder; and what important services may be rendered to society, or to a regiment, for instance, by an intelligent farrier making a proper distinction between this species of glanders and all other affections and diseases resembling it.'

The author annexes a table for the purpose of giving, at one view, the principal characteristics of the different species of glanders: but he also inserts in it, bastard strangles, cold or catarrh, founder, consumption, and asthma; complaints which certainly differ materially from the disease usually described under the names of glanders and farcy. We are at a loss to reconcile his account of these diseases, with what is said of them by the best informed veterinarians of this country. Farcy is always described as a disease which admits of a cure; and which, though it may degenerate into glanders, is principally confined to the skin. Glanders, on the other hand, is represented as a confirmed general disease, for which no cure has yet been found. We are therefore disposed to think that the claim of reputation, which the translator asserts for the author, on account of his ideas on this subject, is not well founded. Vell.

Art. 31. *A Compendium of the Veterinary Art*; containing an accurate Description of all Diseases to which the Horse is liable, with their Symptoms, and Treatment; the Anatomy and Physiology of the Foot, illustrated by Plates; Observations on Shoeing, on Feeding and Exercise, the Stable, &c. Dedicated by Permission to His Royal Highness the Duke of York. By James White, Veterinary Surgeon to His Majesty's 1st or Royal Dragoons. 12mo. 6s boards. Badcock.

This compendium, as we find by the introduction, has already passed through three editions: the author has therefore had an op-

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portunity, which he has not neglected, of making those additions to his original work, with which his own augmented experience, or the improving state of veterinary medicine, has supplied him; and he has exercised much care and judgment in the preparation of this manual, which is one of the most useful that has yet appeared. He adopts the mode of shoeing practised in the veterinary college. and has annexed several plates, in order to illustrate the ample and accurate descriptions given by him of the structure of the horse's foot.—The author affords no new suggestions on the treatment of glanders: but he entertains hopes that, from the additional encouragement given to the cultivation of veterinary medicine, a cure may in time be discovered for this serious malady. He states, as a curious fact respecting its origin, that, a few years since, some horses being embarked for the continent, it became necessary during the voyage to close the hatchways; in consequence of which, the proper circulation of air being prevented, several of them were suffocated, and those which survived were immediately attacked with the glanders. Mr. W. adduces this anecdote to shew, that the disease may be sometimes produced independently of contagion.

Art. 32. *A complete System of Veterinary Medicine,* in two Volumes. By James White. Vol. II. 12mo. 5s. boards. Badcock.

In the preceding article, we noticed with approbation the compendium of veterinary medicine, of which the present volume is a continuation. We should have been better pleased, however, if the author had not given to his two volumes the title of a *complete* system, as this epithet savours rather more of the conceit of a farrier, than the manly confidence of a liberal and enlightened practitioner. The account here given of medicines employed in the treatment of the diseases of horses, and the method of compounding them, which forms the second part of the volume, will be found a considerable acquisition in veterinary practice.

Art. 33. *An Address to the Royal First Devon Yeomanry Cavalry,* respecting the Management of their Horses, when employed on actual Service; pointing out the Accidents and Diseases that are most likely to happen on that Occasion; and the most effectual and expeditious Means to be employed for their Removal. With Directions for Shoeing, and practical Observations on the Cure and Prevention of Lameness. By James White, Veterinary Surgeon to the First or Royal Dragoons. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Badcock.

These directions are the result of long attention to the subject, and therefore merit the particular notice of such persons as are in circumstances similar to those of the gentlemen for whose use they are intended. In concluding his work, the author particularly recommends, that horses should be brought into that high condition which will enable them to perform their duties with proper energy, without sinking under those exertions which on such an occasion will be required of them. Though in momentary expectation of being called out upon this important service, some time may elapse before the contest actually takes place. It will be prudent, therefore, to prepare their horses in some degree for the hardships they will then have to encounter.

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encounter. Above all things, they should avoid keeping them in hot stables, which not only enervates and renders them delicate and susceptible of cold, but also engenders many troublesome diseases. Standing in the stable, upon high feed, and without much exercise, is no less pernicious; it is the source of numerous diseases; and though a horse under such circumstances may appear sleek and fat, he may be truly said to be in bad condition: and if he were forced to much exertion in such a state, a fever would probably be the consequence.

'It will be fortunate for the animal, if his feet escape from injury under such treatment. To render a horse fit for actual service, he should be inured to cold stables and to stand without clothing; his wind should be brought to perfection by regular exercise gradually increased, and by a moderate use of mild physic. He should be now and then galloped, that he may be accustomed to that velocity of motion he will often be wanted for. His feet should be carefully attended to, and got into the best order possible.

'If the heels swell, and the horse appears to have what are termed *humours*, he should be allowed to run at grass during the day. Obstinate coughs will also be alleviated by this treatment. In short, whatever imperfection the horses may labour under at this time, should be strictly attended to, and, if possible, removed; and it is no less adviseable to prevent, by prudent management, those troublesome diseases which are daily happening.'

Yell.

MILITARY AFFAIRS.

Art. 34. *An Inquiry into the present State of the Military Force of the British Empire*, with a View to its Re-organization. Addressed to the Right Hon. Wm. Pitt. By Lieut. Col. R. T. Wilson, K.M.T. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Egerton.

Much interest has been excited by this pamphlet, in consequence of the known military reputation of its author, and the importance and the boldness of several of his statements. Sir Robert seems to have anticipated the opposition which he has experienced, and he frankly declares: 'Conscious of the integrity of my intentions, I shall defy the hostility of prejudice, and spurn the insinuations of calumny: but happy should I be indeed, if any representation of mine shall contribute to secure that interference which has been too long withheld, but for which the present epoch presents the most favourable occasion.' To us it appears that, thinking as Sir Robert does, he discharges an imperious duty to his country in submitting his opinions to public investigation; and they should be considered with attention, whether they obtain acquiescence in whole or in part, or should be finally rejected.

The objects of Sir R. Wilson's remarks are the Volunteers, the Militia, the Army of Reserve, the Regular Army, the Guards, Pay, and Distinctions: but it is on the first point principally that he has encountered opposition, since his views are by no means favourable to this great link in our chain of defence, as at present managed. It is impossible for us, on many accounts, to enter into a detailed examination of his sentiments either in this or the other parts of his pamphlet: but we must express our conviction that, throughout the whole, many serious

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serious truths are stated, and many judicious observations presented to the mind; though it may be necessary to make some allowance for the bias by which the author, as a professional man, must necessarily be influenced. G.R

Art. 35. *A Letter to Lieut. Col. Sir Robert Wilson,* K.M.T. By an Englishman. 8vo. 2s. Cadell and Davies.

This Englishman certainly avails himself of his native privileges with great freedom, and criticizes Sir R. Wilson's pamphlet with much minuteness and severity. He does not, however, always write with that temper with which the subject ought to be discussed, nor with that politeness to which Sir Robert is intitled. Many of his remarks seem to be well-founded, but others appear to us to be much more superficial than those which they combat, and some do not bear adequately on the point in debate. D°

Art. 36. *The Military Mentor.* Being a Series of Letters recently writen by a General Officer to his Son, on his entering the Army: comprizing a Course of elegant Instruction, calculated to unite the Accomplishments of the Gentleman and the Soldier. 2d Edit. Cr. 8vo. 2 vols. 10s. 6d. Boards. R. Phillips. 1804.

The Preface states that the plan and outline of these letters were suggested by an elegant work which appeared about 20 years since in the French language, intitled "*Conseils d'un Militaire à son Fils; par M. le Baron d'A****, Colonel d'Infanterie,*" and which has lately been republished in Paris, under the title of "*Le Guide du jeune Militaire.*" Howsoever derived, and to whomsoever we are indebted for this English compilement, we can recommend it to all young military men; as containing sentiments and advice well worthy of their adoption, as altogether pleasingly written, and as appositely and agreeably illustrated by anecdotes of eminent military characters in both antient and modern times. The work constitutes not a treatise on tactics, but an elegant and judicious lecture on the formation of the mind, and the regulation of the conduct of young men who have embraced the profession of arms. It treats on these among other subjects: on Health and Bodily Strength, on Bravery and Courage, on Greatness of Soul, on the Love of our Country, on Discipline, on Humanity, Modesty, Prudence, Secrecy, Foresight, Honour, False Honour, Anger, Falsehood, Pride, True and False Glory, Duelling, &c.; on Guides, Spies, and Deserters; on Councils of War; on Occasions on which what is prudent must give way to what is daring; on acquiring the Confidence of Soldiers; on ensuring their Courage, &c. &c. The precepts here inculcated are truly such as will combine to form the Gentleman and the Soldier, and the composition is extremely well calculated to instil them with effect. D°

Art. 37. *The Aide de Camp, or Staff Officer's Assistant.* Containing Statements of the Pay, Allowances, and Contingencies, granted to all Officers of the Military and Medical Staff, when employed in Districts in Great Britain. Together with Forms and complete Instructions for making out their half-yearly Accounts, &c. &c. By a Brigade-Major. 12mo. pp. 79. 6s. Boards. Ginger.

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This compilement will undoubtedly prove useful to staff officers, particularly those who are inexperienced: but we must think that the author might have retrenched much of the repetitions which occur in the statements of each officer's pay and allowances, and thus have diminished the expence of the work, without the danger of misconception which he seems to think would have thus been incurred. G. 2.

Art. 38. *The Art of Defence on Foot, with the Broad Sword and Sabre:* adapted also for the Spadroon, or cut-and-thrust Sword. Improved and augmented with the ten Lessons of Mr. John Taylor, late Broadsword Master to the Light Horse Volunteers of London and Westminster. Illustrated with Plates by R. K. Porter, Esq. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Egerton.

It is now highly advisable that the military *Art of Defence on Foot* should be generally understood and acquired; and for this purpose the present volume will prove an useful guide. The plates are large and distinct, and are therefore not only necessary but effective assistants. *Practice*, however, must in course accompany theory in this case. D.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 39. *Observations chiefly Lithological*, made in a Five Weeks' Tour to the principal Lakes in Westmoreland and Cumberland. 8vo. pp. 80. 2s. 6d. sewed. Ostell. 1804.

The scenery which presented itself to this anonymous traveller has been so often described, that he very properly declines indulging in repetition; and the title sufficiently indicates the confined nature of his observations. In the course of five weeks, an active and zealous mineralogist would achieve more than is here accomplished: but the writer's remarks are generally judicious and correct, and may enable future observers to extend their notices in this interesting line of inquiry.—The two cabinets at Keswick are mentioned with a degree of respect to which they are scarcely intitled.

Such of the author's remarks as are unconnected with mineralogy are neither new nor important. The assertion that Stockport 'could not have quadrupled its numbers in ten years' is thus attempted to be proved: 'This would be making the Stockport women prolific with a vengeance, and cause them to eclipse, in replenishing the earth, their transatlantic sisters of Vermont and Kentucky.' May not the population of a place be increased four fold in the term here specified by an influx of new inhabitants?—In the following passage, house-rent is strangely interjected between grouse and plover: 'The grouse, from what I heard, are more numerous in the neighbourhood of Appleby, than in any other part of Cumberland, or Westmoreland. I do not know the price of house rent in Keswick; they ask a guinea a-week, and even more, for private lodgings. At Ambleside the charge for these was only twelve shillings per week. The plover is not uncommon in these counties, and the lapwing is likewise their visitant.'

The writer's journal commences with some disjointed sentences, which kindly prepare the reader for those negligences of style that occur in the sequel. Thus, 'from Penrith I took the Shap road, *by the*

the side of Emont bridge was growing Malva Moschata, in size almost a shrub. On a promontory to the east of the lake, stands a house belonging to an attorney at Cockermouth, *by the name* of Benson, *one of the sweetest spots I ever beheld.*'—'The accommodations at this inn are not so good as at Keswick; but I made a very good dinner *there.*' Quere—Where did the mineralogist dine?—'It is not possible for words to describe the elegance of *this* talc in granite.' *This talc* comes on us by surprize; for the journalist had just mentioned 'red garnet crystals in trap, from near Buttermere,' and 'beautiful carbonate of lead, from Newlands.'—'But it is not this sort of transition I am about to speak.' 'A *quantity* of Quakers'—'*more* preferable,'—'*most* preferable,' &c.—We should be glad to announce this lithological sketch in an extended and corrected form. Mur.

Art. 40. *Translations from the Greek*, viz. Aristotle's Synopsis of the Virtues and Vices. The Similitudes of Demophilus. The Golden Sentences of Democrates; and the Pythagoric Symbols, with the Explanations of Jamblichus. By William Bridgman, F.L.S. To which are added, the Pythagoric Sentences of Demophilus, by Mr. Thomas Taylor. Crown 8vo. pp. 135. 5s. Boards. White. 1804.

This collection of the moral sentiments and practical remarks of the sages of old time is well worthy of being presented to the public in an English dress. The synopsis of the virtues and vices, ascribed to Aristotle, is particularly valuable; and we extract the description of Fortitude, because it contains sentiments well adapted to our present state of danger, and shews how nobly and justly the Philosophers of antiquity reflected on the duties of life:

'It is the property of Fortitude not to be easily terrified by the dread of things pertaining to death; to possess good confidence in things terrible, and presence of mind in dangers; rather to prefer to be put to death worthily, than to be preserved basely; and to be the cause of victory.

'Further, it is the property of Fortitude to labour and endure, and to make valorous exertion an object of choice. *But* presence of mind, a well disposed soul, confidence, and boldness, are the attendants on Fortitude:—and, besides these, industry and patience.'

We observe the word *but* frequently misemployed, where the force of the original * is *besides* or *moreover*. We must also remark that *ignobility* and *immoderation* are words not in common acceptation.—The volume is very neatly and even elegantly printed. Man.

Art. 41. *The Fashionable World displayed.* By Theophilus Christian, Esq. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Hatchard. 1804.

This is a very keen and pointed satire against the follies and vices of the fashionable world; which is here represented as a nation in itself, subsisting under peculiar laws and privileges of its own. We are

* The corresponding expression in the Greek is – ετι δε, or δε simply, which implies some addition to the character given; as we should say, add to this—&c.

well

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well pleased in general with the sentiments of the author; and we think that his representation of this *people* is calculated to produce, in many of the members, a lively perception of their true character: but his objection to the plan adopted by them, of rendering places of worship warm and convenient, appears to us unwarranted by either reason or scripture. Religion, we conceive, would not be a sufferer, if churches in general were more adorned and comfortable than they are; and so far from discountenancing the fashionable world in this respect, in their private chapels, we should advise them in their respective residences in the country to consider it as a duty, at least a *political* duty, to contribute as much as possible to improve their parish churches.

Man.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 42. *The Limit to our Inquiries with respect to the Nature and Attributes of the Deity.* Preached before the University of Cambridge on Commencement Sunday, July 1, 1804. By George Law, D.D. Prebendary of Carlisle. 4to. 1s. 6d. Faulder.

The reply of Simonides to Hiero, when required to explain the nature of God, is well known; and its truth must be deeply felt by every one who reflects on this inscrutable subject. Men who are most eminent for wisdom, even when they endeavour to be correct, are liable to fall into error*; and the revelations of Scripture, in reference to the Nature and Attributes of the Deity, must be considered rather as declarative than as completely explanatory. Dr. Law adverts to the limits which are set to our inquiries into this most elevated and most mysterious subject: I. With respect to the influences of the Holy Spirit. II. To the Liberty of Man, as consistent with the foreknowlege of God; and, III. To the Doctrine of the Trinity. On the last of these heads, this ingenious and liberal preacher observes that 'we are bound to receive with credence and submission what is revealed concerning the divine nature, although the subject lie beyond our span or comprehension.' This is true: but, if the subject lie beyond our comprehension, scripture should be no more augmented by new terms on the one hand, than curtailed on the other. Our ignorance should moreover teach us humility and candour, and incline us to regard the essence of religion as consisting rather in virtuous action than in endless controversy.

Mo-y.

Art. 43. Preached at the Anniversary of the Royal Humane Society, 24th April, 1803, in St. James's Church, Westminster. By the Rt. Rev. Geo. Isaac Huntingford, D.D. Bishop of Gloucester. With an Appendix of Miscellaneous Observations on Resuscitation, by the Society. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Nichols, &c.

Perhaps it is not altogether fair to apply the ordinary rules of criticism to compositions of this nature, which are delivered on particular occasions. The necessity, which the preacher feels, of introducing some remarks peculiar to the institution, has an unavoidable

* Sir I. Newton, in his *Scholium Generale*, is perhaps in this predicament, when he says "*Deus non est Infinitas et Eternitas, sed infinitus et eternus.*"

tend-

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tendency to break the unity of design, and to interrupt the direct tendency of his discourse to the end proposed by the text. We shall therefore only observe that the argument in this sermon, (from Psal. cl. 6.) as appropriate to the occasion, takes a physical turn, and the text becomes little more than a motto. The general approbation of the audience is a sufficient proof that it was a seasonable and welcome discourse; and we congratulate the Right Rev. Author in the beneficial effect of his pious exertions in behalf of the Humane Society. Man.

Art. 44. *A Discourse on the Christian Doctrine of Atonement*, or Reconciliation of the World to God by Jesus Christ. By R. Wright. 12mo. 1s. Vidler.

Persuaded that the common idea concerning the Atonement, and that of the Scriptures, are at variance, Mr. Wright endeavours, in a brief yet perspicuous manner, to rectify the prevailing misapprehension, and to give a view of the doctrine which shall be exonerated from the objections attached to the notion of appeasing or placating the Deity by a vicarious sacrifice. He first, in order to ascertain its precise meaning, considers the derivation of the term *Atonement*, which is purely of English origin, being compounded of *at* and *one*, with the termination *ment*; making *at-one-ment*. 'To *atone* is therefore to set at one persons or things which were at a distance from each other, and *atonement* consists in their being set at one.' Hence *atonement* is synonimous with *reconcilement*; and it is by this latter word that καταλλαγὴν in Rom. v. 11. (the text) should have been rendered, in accordance with the translation of the same term in other places. Advancing from words to things, Mr. W. observes that, in his text, *men*, not God, are said to have received the atonement or reconciliation; and this, he remarks, ought to decide the point that it is men, not God, whom Christ atones or reconciles. 'Christ patiently submitted to all his sufferings, not that he might appease the wrath of an incensed God and reconcile him to the world, but that he might effect the reconciliation of the world to God; and this reconciliation was made in a progressive way. It began by the introduction of the gospel, it proceeds by the personal reconciliation of sinners by the influence of the gospel, and it will be completed by the restitution of all things.'—Thus great importance is stamped on the work of Christ, without depreciating the character of the Father, or making (as on the common system) the salvation of man a matter of justice in the Deity, and not of mercy.

We recommend this sermon to the perusal of such of our theological readers, as are desirous of thinking correctly on controverted doctrines. Moy.

POLITICAL.

Art. 45. *Letters intercepted on board the Admiral Aplin* (East Indiaman), captured by the French; and inserted by the French Government in the *Moniteur* and two supplementary Sheets, 16 Sept. 1804. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Westley.

The English translator of these papers makes a few prefatory remarks on the act of the French government in printing them, and on the

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the propriety of submitting them to the British public; intimates his suspicions of interpolations; and then observes that he declines all farther comments, leaving the letters to speak for themselves.

Considerable curiosity has been excited by the appearance of this private correspondence: but we think that very few of the letters are calculated to gratify that feeling, or to convey any information. A *few* there are of that description, which have been sufficiently circulated in the newspapers. It appears to us that there can be no doubt of the *reality* of the correspondence, but against its genuineness in all its parts many reasons may be urged: though a reference to the originals could alone disclose all the liberties which may have been taken with them. G. 2.

Art. 46. *Proofs relative to the Falsification of the intercepted Correspondence in the Admiral Aplin Indiaman.* By William Playfair, 8vo. 1s. 6d. All Booksellers.

Mr. Playfair argues that proofs of the falsification of these papers may be drawn from various circumstances: but he relies principally on a letter which he received from a friend in Holland, dated 15th Sept. of whose integrity and information he speaks in high terms, and in which he was told; 'An English Indiaman has been taken near the Mauritius, with a correspondence on board, which Mr. O'Connor and Mr. O'Neil were occupied in altering and translating, to be put into the newspapers, when I left Paris. I cannot tell you the exact alterations; but the purpose for which they were made is to persuade the people and the army, that Bonaparte is ruining England with more certainty than if he invaded it. This is meant to be the use of the letters for France; and for England, they will be altered so as to set individuals at variance, and create uneasiness and jealousy:—you may depend on this information, and that the paper dated at the Mauritius is printed in Paris, and not there.'—We see little other improbability in this statement, than that the circumstances should come to the knowlege of this letter-writer. The soul of *deception* is secrecy; and the stratagems of the French government ever were, and still are, peculiarly well concealed. Do.

Art. 47. *A full Report of the Speeches of Sir Francis Burdett at the late Election*; including those at the Crown and Anchor Tavern, of which but imperfect Sketches were given in the Newspapers. The legal Arguments upon the last Day of the Election, particularly the admired Speech of Mr. Plumer, are given at full length: together with a Selection of the Papers published during the Election; and a Preface, in which a Review is taken by the Editor, of the Conduct, Character, and Connections of Sir Francis Burdett, and also of the Conduct and Characters of his Opponents. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Symonds.

So ample a statement of the contents of this pamphlet is conveyed to the reader by the title page, that no information on that point is requisite from us; and we have only to add that the editor is a very elaborate supporter and warm admirer of the character and conduct of Sir Francis Burdett. Do.

CORRES-

Our readers will recollect that, in the last Number of our Review (pp. 186, 187.) an extract was made from a work purporting to give the *Correspondence of a Gentleman at Berlin with a Person of Distinction in London*, in which the writer pretended to state certain facts respecting the British Embassy at St. Petersburgh.—It is gratifying to our national feelings, and to our respect for the nobleman who then represented this country at the Russian Court, to be enabled now to assure the public, *on evidence which we consider as unquestionable*, that the relation there given of several circumstances, which the author of that work supposes to have happened at St. Petersburgh, during Lord St. Helens's embassy to that Court in 1801, *is wholly without foundation*; that no such occurrences, in any shape or degree, ever took place; and that, the premises being false, the inferences are in course erroneous.—The nature of the topics discussed by this writer in his different publications, the peculiarities attending their appearance, the boldness of his sentiments, and the acuteness of his speculations, excited from us considerable attention: but, since his information thus stands convicted of fallacy in one material instance, his authority in others will become suspicious.

We deem ourselves obliged by the letter of a Correspondent, who dates from Trinity College, Cambridge; and we shall not fail to attend to his communication, at the proper time and place.

If *Amicus* will reconsider the nature of his statement, he must see that the insertion of it would lead us into very unpleasant controversy. Though we discuss *principles*, we must not intermix them with *personalities*; and even if the information of *Amicus* be correct in the latter point of view, it does not affect the general argument.

We thank 'a Constant Reader,' whose letter bears the Norwich Post-mark, for his biographical particulars; and we shall very shortly take notice of the object of his postscript.

Does J. C. intend to maintain that Shakspeare must be admitted as authority for the use of any low, indecent, or ungrammatical word or phrase which may be found in the chequered writings of that extraordinary genius? If he does, we must assure him that *we* cannot abide by such a decision.

Our friend '*neax Lestwithiel*' will find, on farther investigation, that we were justified in our remark.

☞ In the last Appendix, p. 457. l. 19. for '*cultoris*,' r. *cultioris*; and l. 22. put a full stop instead of the interrogative mark after '*eorborum*.' P. 458. l. 11. for '*quam*,' r. *quum*.

In the Review for September, p. 58. l. 10. from bottom, put a comma after '*as*.' P. 91. l. 7. from bott. dele '*du*.' P. 99. l. 15. for '*caritatis*,' r. *caritates*. P. 106. last line, put a comma after '*vice*,' and take it away after '*like*.'

Rev. for Oct. p. 199. *note*, dele the *s* in *erratas*.

Errors, pp. 259, 323.

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THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For DECEMBER, 1804.

ART. I. *Lord* Teignmouth's *Memoirs of Sir William Jones.*

[*Article concluded from pp.* 225—236.]

WE very much approve the plan adopted by the noble author of this work, in making the subject of it in a great degree his own historian, by means of the correspondence which he maintained with various friends; and the letters which passed between him and several learned foreigners,—Count Reviczki, Schultens, Bayer, and others,—are eminently interesting. To Count R., who had complained to him of the turbulence which he had witnessed at a Middlesex election, Mr. Jones thus replies:

'If I were not a sincere lover of truth, and averse from all dissimulation, I should lament that our capital has fallen under your inspection in these times of turbulence and distraction, when the liberty of my country, so universally celebrated, has degenerated into unbridled licentiousness, not to say outrage. The original form of our constitution is almost divine;—to such a degree, that no state of Rome or Greece, could ever boast one superior to it, nor could Plato, Aristotle, nor any legislator, even conceive a more perfect model of a state. The three parts which compose it are so harmoniously blended and incorporated, that neither the flute of Aristoxenus, nor the lyre of Timotheus, ever produced more perfect concord. What can be more difficult than to devise a constitution, which, while it guards the dignity of the sovereign and liberty of the people, from any encroachment by the influence and power of the nobility, preserves the force and majesty of the laws from violation, by the popular liberty? This was the case formerly in our island, and would be so still, if the folly of some had not prompted them to spur on the populace instead of holding them in. I cannot therefore restrain my indignation against *Wilkes*, a bold and able, but turbulent man, the very torch and firebrand of sedition; but what can be said in defence of the honour and consistency of some of our nobility, who, after having given him their countenance and support, shamefully deserted and betrayed him.

'If you wish to obtain more accurate information respecting our laws and customs, I recommend to your perusal Smith's Treatise on

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the English Constitution, and the Dialogue of Fortescue in praise of the Laws of England. Thomas Smith was the English ambassador in France in the reign of Elizabeth, and his work is in Latin, and not inelegantly written. To Fortescue's little tract we may apply the words of Xenophon, to the Teleboas, "it is not large, but beautiful." He was Chancellor of England under Henry the VIth, and was compelled by the distractions of the times, to take refuge with his pupil Prince Edward in France, where, in an advanced age, he composed his little golden dialogue. These books will convince you that our laws are framed with the greatest wisdom, and that as Pindar, quoted by Plato in his Gorgias, says,

'Sov'reign o'er all, eternal Law
On Gods and Men imposes awe,
And justice, strengthen'd by her hand
O'er all exerts supreme command.'

'When I reflect on our constitution, I seem as it were to contemplate a game at chess, a recreation in which we both delight. For we have a king whose dignity we strenuously defend, but whose power is very limited; the knights and rooks, and other pieces, have some kind of resemblance to the orders of nobility, who are employed in war, and in the management of public affairs; but the principal strength is in the pawns or people; if these are firmly united they are sure of victory, but if divided and separated, the battle is lost. The motions of all, as in the game of chess, are regulated by fixed laws: lastly, when I consider myself, I seem like a spectator, contemplating for his mere amusement the two parties at the game; but if it ever should be my lot, to be concerned in the administration of affairs, I will renounce gain and popularity, and pursue one object, and one only, to preserve our beautiful constitution inviolate.'

Mr. Jones's literary enthusiasm is apparent from a letter which he wrote about this time to Lady Spencer, detailing the particulars of his visit to Forest-hill, situated within three miles of Oxford, which had been the residence of Milton during the three years that followed his first marriage; and where Mr. J. discovered the original scene described in a most beautiful passage in the L'Allegro.

'The poet's house was close to the church, the greatest part of it has been pulled down, and what remains, belongs to an adjacent farm. I am informed that several papers in Milton's own hand, were found by the gentleman who was last in possession of the estate. The tradition of his having lived there is current among the villagers: one of them shewed us a ruinous wall that made part of his chamber, and I was much pleased with another, who had forgotten the name of Milton, but recollected him by the title of The Poet.

'It must not be omitted that the groves near this village are famous for nightingales, which are so elegantly described in the Penseroso. Most of the cottage windows are overgrown with sweet-briars, vines, and honey-suckles, and that Milton's habitation had the same

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same rustic ornament, we may conclude from his description of the lark bidding him good-morrow,

> 'Thro' the sweet-briar, or the vine,
> Or the twisted eglantine:'

for it is evident, that he meant a sort of honey-suckle by the eglantine; though that word is commonly used for the sweet-briar, which he could not mention twice in the same couplet.

'If I ever pass a month or six weeks at Oxford in the Summer, I shall be inclined to hire and repair this venerable mansion, and to make a festival for a circle of friends, in honour of Milton, the most perfect scholar, as well as the sublimest poet, that our country ever produced. Such an honour will be less splendid, but more sincere and respectful, than all the pomp and ceremony on the banks of the Avon.'

Writing to the same noble person from Paris, he says:

'While Mrs. Poyntz staid at Lyons, I made an excursion to Geneva, in hopes of seeing Voltaire, but was disappointed. I sent him a note with a few verses, implying that the muse of tragedy had left her ancient seat in Greece and Italy, and had fixed her abode on the borders of a lake, &c. He returned this answer: "The worst of French poets and philosophers is almost dying; age and sickness have brought him to his last day; he can converse with nobody, and entreats Mr. Jones to excuse and pity him. He presents him with his humble respects." But he was not so ill as he imagined; for he had been walking in his court, and went into his house just as I came to it. The servants shewed me somebody at a window, who they said was he; but I had scarce a glimpse of him. I am inclined to think that Voltaire begins to be rather serious, when he finds himself upon the brink of eternity; and that he refuses to see company, because he cannot display his former wit and sprightliness.'

The conduct of Voltaire on this occasion, together with his reception of Mr. Gibbon on another, does not very well agree with the accounts given of the veteran's politeness to strangers. To persons of rank, or of established fame, or to those who had influence in considerable French circles, he was of easy access: but it seems that he did not want reserve when young candidates for distinction requested permission to offer him their homage. He perhaps thought that our hero ought to have approached him with more form; and that he should have come furnished with letters of introduction, and not have presumed to claim admission to him as a fellow votary of the muses. Be this as it may, the simple tale sufficiently exposes the incivility of the Frenchman, while it is much to the credit of the visitor that he suffers no censure on it to escape his pen. We have often suspected that the critical severity of Gibbon on Voltaire might have been caused by the slight treatment which the former experienced from the old wit.—In the course of this

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letter, the shocking accident of the night of the fire-works at Paris is mentioned; and at the close of his epistle, the writer tells her Ladyship, that 'in the midst of all the disasters of the fire-works, the Mareschal de Richlieu was in such a panic, that he got out of his carriage, and screamed out, Est-ce qu'on veut laisser perir un Mareschal de France? N'y a-t-il personne pour secourir un Mareschal de France?—This will be an eternal joke against him!—'

As evidence of the wide range which Mr. Jones took in literature, we cannot omit to mention a translation from the original of a Chinese poem, which was very antient in the time of Confucius, and which he forwarded at this period from Paris to his friend Reviczki. The subsequent passage also discloses the diversity of his pursuits, and shews with what a critical eye he surveyed the writings of others:

'From the terms (says Lord T.) in which Mr. Jones speaks of the tragedy of Soliman, in one of his letters, it appears, that he was considerably advanced towards its completion; and from the mention which he afterwards makes of it, in another to Reviczki, it would seem that it was actually finished, but I have in vain attempted to discover any traces of it. The preface to Soliman, written by Mr. Jones, has been communicated to me, but does not appear sufficiently correct for publication. He notices in it the custom of poets to send abroad their pieces with prefatory discourses calculated to mislead the taste or judgment of their readers, and exemplifies the remark, by reference to Dryden, La Motte, and Corneille. Of Dryden, he observes, that having composed tragedies in rhyme, he thought it necessary to prepare the public for so novel an attempt by telling them in his advertisements, that every tragedy should be written in rhyme; that La Motte purposely violated the unities of the Drama; while Corneille preserved them with an exactness approaching to affectation; and that each endeavoured in a prefatory discourse to prove himself alone in the right. He disclaims all idea of imitating a conduct, which he pronounces absurd and useless, and contents himself with a few hints on the principles which had directed him in the composition of the tragedy.'

About this period, he quitted the Spencer family, and entered himself at the Temple. He did not, however, at once relinquish his Oriental studies, but was occupied for some time in finishing, and preparing for the press, several productions on which he had been employed in preceding years.

In a letter to Count Reviczki, who had admonished him not to neglect the pleasures which were becoming at his time of life, he replies in terms that will give our readers a farther insight into his character:

'Do not imagine that I despise the usual enjoyments of youth; no one can take more delight in singing and dancing than I do, nor in the moderate

moderate use of wine, nor in the exquisite beauty of the ladies, of whom London affords an enchanting variety; but I prefer glory, my supreme delight, to all other gratifications, and I will pursue it through fire and water, by day and by night. Oh! my Charles, (for I renounce all ceremony, and address you with ancient simplicity) what a boundless scene opens to my view; if I had two lives, I should scarcely find time for the due execution of all the public and private projects which I have in mind.'

In the same letter, he mentions an epic poem which he intended to write, and which his biographer thus describes:

'The plan of it was sketched during his residence at Spâ, in July 1770. The original manuscript has been preserved; and I am enabled to communicate it to the public. The subject of the poem was the supposed discovery of our island by Tyrian adventurers, and he proposed to exhibit, under the character of the prince of Tyre, that of a perfect king of this country; a character which he pronounces the most glorious and beneficial of any that the warmest imagination can form. It represents (to quote his own words) the dangers to which a King of England is necessarily exposed, the vices which he must avoid, and the virtues, and great qualities, with which he must be adorned. On the whole, "Britain Discovered" is intended as a poetical panegyrick on our excellent constitution, and as a pledge of the author's attachment to it; as a national epic poem, like those of Homer, Virgil, Tasso, and Camoens, designed to celebrate the honours of his country, to display in a striking light the most important principles of politics and morality, and to inculcate these grand maxims, that nothing can shake our state, while the true liberty of the subject remains united with the dignity of the sovereign, and that in all states, virtue is the only sure basis of private and public happiness.'

Mr. Jones also speaks of a Turkish history which he had at this time nearly finished; and,

'In the commencement of 1774, he published his Commentaries on Asiatic Poetry. This work was received with admiration and applause by the Oriental scholars of Europe in general, as well as by the learned of his own country. It was perhaps the first publication on Eastern literature, which had an equal claim to elegance and erudition. This work was begun by Mr. Jones in 1766, and finished in 1769, when he was in his twenty-third year; but with the same solicitude which he had exhibited on other occasions, to lay his compositions before the public in the greatest possible perfection, he had repeatedly submitted the manuscript to the examination and critical remarks of his learned friends.'

Dr. Parr, in a letter to Mr. Jones, thus delivers his opinion of the above work:

"I have read your book De Poesi Asiatica with all the attention that is due to a work so studiously designed, and so happily executed. The observations are just and curious, and equally free from

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indiscriminate approbation, licentious censure, and excessive refinement.

"Through the hurry of the first composition, the same expression frequently occurs, and sentences begin in the same manner, and now and then two words are improperly combined.

"These inaccuracies are very rare and very trifling. On the whole there is a purity, an ease, an elegance in the style, which shew an accurate and most perfect knowledge of the Latin tongue. Your Latin translations in verse gave me great satisfaction. I am uncommonly charmed with the idyllium, called Chrysis. The flow of the verses, the poetic style of the words, and the elegant turn of the whole poem, are admirable.

"On the whole I have received infinite entertainment from this curious and learned performance, and I look forward with pleasure, to the great honour such a publication will do our country."—

'At the conclusion of the Commentaries (says Lord Teignmouth) we find an elegant address to the Muse, in which Mr. Jones expresses his determination to renounce polite literature, and devote himself entirely to the study of the law. He was called to the Bar in January 1774, and had discovered, as he writes to an intimate friend, that the law was a jealous science, and would admit no partnership with the Eastern muses. To this determination he appears to have inflexibly adhered for some years, notwithstanding the friendly remonstrances and flattering invitations of his learned correspondents.'

The very learned Schultens, in a letter to our countryman, thus remonstrates with him on his desertion of literature: 'As sincere a lover as yourself of the Muses, how much I regret their unhappy lot, that whilst they have so few admirers, one of their most distinguished votaries should be seduced from their service by the discordant broils of the bar. Do they not then possess such charms and graces as to merit a preference to others who have no portion but wealth and honour? Is not their beauty so attractive, their dress so elegant and enchanting, as to fascinate their admirers to a degree, which makes them despise all others, and feel no delight but in their society?' To this expostulation, we add the reply of Mr. Jones, though long, because it displays to us the views that led him to the important step which he had taken, and announced to the world:

'I am highly gratified by your father's and your approbation of my Commentaries, and I acknowledge the kindness of your friendly and polite expostulation in telling me that you cannot bear to see me desert the cause of literature. But, my friend, the die is cast, and I have no longer a choice; all my books and manuscripts, with an exception of those only which relate to law and oratory, are locked up at Oxford, and I have determined for the next twenty years at least, to renounce all studies but those which are connected with my profession. It is needless to trouble you with my reasons at length for this determination, I will only say,

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say, that if I had lived at Rome or Athens, I should have preferred the labours, studies, and dangers of their orators and illustrious citizens, connected as they were with banishment and even death, to the groves of the poets, or the gardens of the philosophers. Here I adopt the same resolution. The Constitution of England is in no respect inferior to that of Rome or Athens; this is my fixed opinion, which I formed in my earliest years, and shall ever retain. Although I sincerely acknowledge the charms of polite literature, I must at the same time adopt the sentiment of Neoptolemus in the tragedy, that we can philosophize with a few only, and no less the axiom of Hippocrates, that life is short, art long, and time swift. But I will also maintain the excellence and the delight of other studies. What, shall we deny that there is pleasure in mathematics, when we recollect Archimedes, the prince of geometricians, who was so intensely absorbed in the demonstration of a problem, that he did not discover Syracuse was taken? Can we conceive any study more important, than the single one of the laws of our own country? Let me recall to your recollection the observations of L. Crassus and Q. Scævola on this subject, in the treatise of Cicero de Oratore. What! do you imagine the goddess of eloquence to possess less attractions than Thalia or Polyhymnia, or have you forgotten the epithets which Ennius bestows on Cethegus, the quintessence of eloquence, and the flower of the people? Is there a man existing who would not rather resemble Cicero, whom I wish absolutely to make my model, both in the course of his life and studies, than be like Varro, however learned, or Lucretius, however ingenious as a poet? If the study of the law were really unpleasant and disgusting, which is far from the truth, the example of the wisest of the ancients, and of Minerva herself, the goddess of wisdom, would justify me in preferring the useful olive to the barren laurel.

'To tell you my mind freely, I am not of a disposition to bear the arrogance of men of rank, to which poets and men of letters are so often obliged to submit. Accept this friendly reply to your friendly expostulation, and believe my assurances that I entertain the highest value for your esteem, of which I have received so many proofs. I most anxiously expect your dissertation. May the Almighty prosper your labours, and particularly your laborious task of Meidani. May the most learned Scheidius persevere with resolution in compleating the gigantic work, which he meditates. I admire his most laudable industry, but after the fate of Meninski, (I do not speak of his works, but of his fortunes) no prudent man (for he that is not wise to himself is wise to no end) will venture to expose his vessel to the perils of shipwreck in so uncertain a sea. The work is worthy of a king, but the expense of it will require the revenue of a king.'

We now behold this delight of scholars, this wonder of the age, transformed into a young lawyer, and taking his seat on the back-benches of Westminster-Hall:—we see the man on whom the compliments of all the learned men of Europe, and

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of several even of those of Asia, had been bestowed, sitting obscure and unnoticed in the noisy forum, while declamation and assurance bear away distinction and wealth. This degradation, however, is temporary; and the perseverance and sound judgment of Mr. Jones hereafter raise him to higher consideration, and to a wider sphere of utility, than he could ever have reached had he cultivated letters alone.

During the period in which Mr. Jones practised at the Bar, the particulars of his life are more generally known than others, and his publications are such as entered into a wider circulation; we shall therefore pass over this interval without any detail. Few are ignorant that he was amused by Lord North with promises of conferring on him, what had become the great object of his wishes, a seat in the supreme court at Calcutta; and that he obtained it under the administration of Lord Lansdowne, through the interference of Lord Ashburton. A short time previously to his departure for the East, he married the present Lady Jones; who, it appears from the volume before us, has never ceased to exhibit every proof of deep affection for the illustrious partner of her life; as well as of that anxious solicitude for his fame, which shews that she was worthy of an alliance which, while it lasted, was not less happy than honourable. She was the daughter of Dr. Shipley, Bishop of St. Asaph; a most pious, benevolent, and liberal minded prelate, whose elegant compositions furnish some of the most perfect models of a good style that are to be found in our language.—Mr. Jones was also knighted, on taking leave of his native country.

Of his reception in India, and his feelings on his arrival there, we have this account from Lord Teignmouth:

'His reputation had preceded his arrival, which was anxiously expected, and he had the happiness to find, that his appointment had diffused a general satisfaction, which his presence now rendered complete. The students of the Oriental languages were eager to welcome a scholar, whose erudition in that branch of literature was unrivalled, and whose labours and genius had assisted their progress; while the public rejoiced in the possession of a magistrate, whose probity and independance were no less acknowledged than his abilities.

'With what rapture he himself contemplated his new situation, may be more easily conceived than described. As a magistrate of the supreme court of judicature, he had now that opportunity which he ever ardently desired, of devoting his talents to the service of his native country, and of promoting the happiness of the community in which he resided; while the history, antiquities, natural productions, arts, sciences, and literature of Asia, opened an extensive and almost boundless field to his enquiries. He was now placed

placed amidst a people, whose pretensions to antiquity had hitherto eluded research, and whose manners, religion, and customs, still retained the same characteristic peculiarities, by which they were originally distinguished. Time, who spreads the veil of oblivion over the opinions and works of mankind, who annihilates empires and the records of their existence, had spared the doctrines and language of the followers of Brama, and amidst the ravages of conquest and oppressions of tyranny, seemed to protect with parental care some of the earliest monuments of his reign. The Hindoos in fact presented to the observation of Sir William Jones, a living picture of antiquity; and although the colouring might be somewhat faded and obscured, the lineaments of the original character were still discernible by the most superficial observer, whilst he remarked them with discrimination and rapture.'

It is known to our readers that Sir Wm. Jones had been in India but a very short time before he instituted the Asiatic Society, and began the study of the Sanscrit.

'His reflection (we are told) had before suggested, that a knowledge of this ancient tongue would be of the greatest utility, in enabling him to discharge with confidence and satisfaction to himself, the duties of a judge; and he soon discovered, what subsequent experience fully confirmed, that no reliance could be placed on the opinions, or interpretations of the professors of the Hindu law, unless he were qualified to examine their authorities and quotations, and detect their errors and misrepresentations. On the other hand, he knew that all attempts to explore the religion or literature of India, through any other medium than a knowledge of the Sanscrit, must be imperfect and unsatisfactory; it was evident, that the most erroneous and discordant opinions on these subjects, had been circulated by the ignorance of those who had collected their information from oral communications only, and that the pictures exhibited in Europe, of the religion and literature of India, could only be compared to the maps constructed by the natives, in which every position is distorted, and all proportion violated. As a lawyer, he knew the value and importance of original documents and records, and as a scholar and man of science, he disdained the idea of amusing the learned world, with secondary information on subjects which had greatly interested their curiosity, when he had the means of access to the original sources. He was also aware that much was expected by the literati in Europe, from his superior abilities and learning, and he felt the strongest inclination to gratify their expectations in the fullest possible extent.'

In 1788, he obtained the sanction of the government of India, then administered by Lord Cornwallis, to that magnificent undertaking, the digest of Hindu and Mohammedan law. We have already stated that the compilation was executed under his superintendence and direction, and translated by him as it advanced. Alluding to this work in a letter to Dr. Price, he says, 'We have twenty millions (I speak with good information,)

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tion,) of Indian subjects, whose laws I am now compiling, and arranging, in the hope of securing their property to themselves, and their heirs. They are pleased with the work, but it makes me a very bad correspondent.' On another occasion, he observes, 'I am engaged in superintending a complete system of Indian laws; but the work is vast, difficult, and delicate; it occupies all my leisure.' Though Sir William did not live to complete this grand enterprize, we are happy to learn from his biographer that it has been since terminated.

Lord Teignmouth appears laudably anxious to satisfy his readers that Sir William Jones was a sincere Christian. His early declarations on this subject are such as might have induced a suspicion that he was of the sect of Newton, Locke, and the Unitarians: but the expressions in his later performances are consonant to the doctrines of our national church; and there is no doubt that he was as firm in his belief of the Christian religion, as he was steady in his observance of its precepts.

Lady Jones had left India on account of her health, some time before the death of her invaluable husband:

'The few months (we are told) that were allotted to his existence after the departure of Lady Jones, were devoted to his usual occupations, and more particularly to the discharge of that duty which alone detained him in India, the completion of the digest of Hindu and Mahommedan law. But neither the consciousness of acquitting himself of an obligation which he had voluntarily contracted, nor his incessant assiduity, could fill the vacuity occasioned by the absence of her, whose society had sweetened the toil of application and cheered his hours of relaxation. Their habits were congenial, and their pursuits in some respects similar: his botanical researches were facilitated by the eyes of Lady Jones, and by her talents in Drawing; and their evenings were generally passed together, in the perusal of the best modern authors in the different languages of Europe. After her departure he mixed more in promiscuous society; but his affections were transported with her to his native country.

'On the evening of the 20th of April 1794, or nearly about that date, after prolonging his walk to a late hour, during which he had imprudently remained in conversation, in an unwholesome situation, he called upon the writer of these sheets, and complained of agueish symptoms, mentioning his intention to take some medicine, and repeating jocularly an old proverb, that "an ague in the spring is medicine for a king." He had no suspicion at the time, of the real nature of his indisposition, which proved in fact to be a complaint common in Bengal, an inflammation in the liver. The disorder was, however, soon discovered by the penetration of the physician, who after two or three days was called in to his assistance; but it had then advanced too far to yield to the efficacy of the medicines usually prescribed, and they were administered in vain. The progress of the complaint was uncommonly rapid, and terminated fatally on the 27th

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of April. On the morning of that day his attendants, alarmed at the evident symptoms of approaching dissolution, came precipitately to call the friend who has now the melancholy task of recording the mournful event: not a moment was lost in repairing to his house. He was lying on his bed in a posture of meditation, and the only symptom of remaining life was a small degree of motion in the heart, which after a few seconds ceased, and he expired without a pang or groan. His bodily suffering, from the complacency of his features and the ease of his attitude, could not have been severe; and his mind must have derived consolation from those sources where he had been in the habit of seeking it, and where alone in our last moments, it can ever be found.'

Of Sir William's wonderful philological attainments, we have this summary:

'In the short space of forty-seven years, by the exertion of rare intellectual talents, he acquired a knowledge of arts, sciences, and languages, which has seldom been equalled, and perhaps never surpassed. If he did not attain the critical proficiency of a Porson or a Parr in Grecian literature, yet his knowledge of it was most extensive and profound, and entitled him to a high rank in the first class of scolars, while as a philologist he could boast an universality in which he had no rival. His skill in the idioms of India, Persia, and Arabia has perhaps never been equalled by any European; and his compositions on Oriental subjects display a taste which we seldom find in the writings of those who had preceded him in these tracts of literature. The language of Constantinople was also familiar to him, and of the Chinese characters and tongue, he had learned enough to enable him to translate an ode of Confucius. In the modern dialects of Europe, French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, and German, he was thoroughly conversant, and had perused the most admired writers in those languages. I might extend the list by specifying other dialects which he understood, but which he had less perfectly studied *.'

'* The following is transcribed from a paper in the hand-writing of Sir William Jones.

'LANGUAGES.

'Eight languages studied critically:
English, Latin, French, Italian,
Greek, Arabic, Persian, Sanscrit.
Eight studied less perfectly, but all intelligible with a dictionary:
Spanish, Portuguese, German, Runick,
Hebrew, Bengali, Hindi, Turkish.
Twelve studied least perfectly, but all attainable:
Tibetian, Pâli, Phalavi, Deri,
Russian, Syriac, Ethiopic, Coptic,
Welsh, Swedish, Dutch, Chinese.
Twenty-eight languages.

'In another memorandum, he mentions having read a grammar of the Russian and Welsh.'

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We wish that our limits would allow of our making liberal extracts from the estimate of the talents, character, and attainments of Sir William Jones, as sketched by his noble biographer; which we regard as deserving of eminent praise, and as being not less creditable to the feelings than to the understanding and impartiality of the writer. We must, however, content ourselves with one or two, with which we shall close this article:

'In the first charge which Sir William Jones delivered to the grand jury at Calcutta, he told them, that he aspired to no popularity, and sought no praise but that which might be given to a strict and conscientious discharge of duty, without predilection, or prejudice of any kind, and with a fixed resolution to pronounce on all occasions what he conceived to be the law, than which no individual must suppose himself wiser. His conduct as a judge was most strictly conformable to his professions: on the bench he was laborious, patient, and discriminating: his charges to the grand jury, which do not exceed six, exhibit a veneration for the laws of his country, a just and spirited encomium on the trial by jury, as the greatest and most invaluable right derived from them to the subject, a detestation of crimes, combined with mercy towards the offender, occasional elucidations of the law, and the strongest feelings of humanity and benevolence. By his knowledge of the Sanscrit and Arabic, he was eminently qualified to promote the administration of justice in the Supreme Court, by detecting misrepresentations of the Hindu or Mahommedan laws, and by correcting impositions in the form of administering oaths to the followers of Brahma and Mahommed. If no other benefit had resulted from his study of these languages, than the compilation of the digest, and the translation of Menu and of two Mahommedan law tracts, this application of his talents to promote objects of the first importance to India and Europe, would have entitled him to the acknowledgments of both countries. Of his studies in general it may be observed, that the end which he always had in view, was practical utility; that knowledge was not accumulated by him, as a source of mere intellectual recreation, or to gratify an idle curiosity, or for the idler purpose of ostentatiously displaying his acquisitions; to render himself useful to his country and mankind, and to promote the prosperity of both, were the primary and permanent motives of his indefatigable exertions in acquiring knowledge.

'The inflexible integrity with which he discharged the solemn duty of this station will long be remembered in Calcutta, both by Europeans and natives. So cautious was he to guard the independence of his character from any possibility of violation or imputation, that no solicitation could prevail upon him, to use his personal influence with the members of administration in India, to advance the private interests of friends whom he esteemed, and which he would have been happy to promote. He knew the dignity, and felt the importance of his office, and convinced that none could afford him more ample scope for exerting his talents to the benefit of mankind, his ambition never extended beyond it. No circumstance occasioned his

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his death to be more lamented by the public, than the loss of his abilities as judge, of which they had had the experience of eleven years.'—

'His intercourse with the Indian natives of character and abilities was extensive: he liberally rewarded those by whom he was served and assisted, and his dependants were treated by him as friends. Under this denomination he has frequently mentioned in his works the name of Bahman, a native of Yezd, and follower of the doctrines of Zoroaster, whom he retained in his pay, and whose death he often adverted to with regret. Nor can I resist the impulse which I feel to repeat an anecdote of what occurred after his demise; the pundits who were in the habit of attending him, when I saw them at a public *durbar*, a few days after that melancholy event, could neither restrain their tears for his loss, nor find terms to express their admiration at the wonderful progress which he had made, in the sciences which they professed.'—

'In the pleasing office of delineating his virtues, my regret for his loss has been suspended, but will never be obliterated; and whilst I cherish with pride the recollection that he honoured me with his esteem, I cannot cease to feel and lament that the voice to which I listened with rapture and improvement, is heard no more.

'As far as happiness may be considered dependant upon the attainment of our wishes, he possessed it. At the period of his death, by a prudent attention to economy, which never encroached upon his liberality, he had acquired a competency, and was in a situation to enjoy dignity with independence. For this acquisition he was indebted to the exertion of his talents and abilities, of energies well directed, and usefully applied to the benefit of his country and mankind. He had obtained a reputation which might gratify the highest ambition: and as far as human happiness is also connected with expectation, he had in prospect a variety of employments, the execution of which, depended only on the continuance of his health and intellectual powers. I shall not here enlarge upon the common topic of the vanity of human wishes, prospects and enjoyments, which my subject naturally suggests; but if my reader should not participate that admiration which the memory of Sir William Jones excites in my mind, I must submit to the mortification of having depreciated a character, which I had fondly hoped would be effectually emblazoned by its own excellence, if I did but simply recite the talents and virtues which conspired to dignify and adorn it.'

Among other curious matters, which are to be found in the Appendix, is a full developement of the plan of the history of the Turks, already mentioned as one of the literary projects on which Sir William Jones intended to have employed himself; an undertaking which, to use his own words on another occasion, it would require the best part of the life of such men as live in these degenerate days to execute: since it would be necessary for the person who entered on it to add to a thorough knowlege of the language of Turkey, and a residence of some time

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time in the country, a deep acquaintance with the Persic and Arabic languages. It clearly appears that this would be a most important service to literature; and we hope that some aspiring candidate for literary fame may be induced, by the perusal of Sir William Jones's essay on the subject, to attempt the execution of this task.

We have spoken strongly on the extraordinary merits of Sir William Jones, and we have extracted copiously from the contents of this interesting publication: but words are scarcely sufficient to express our feelings on the former subject, and our limits do not admit of complete gratification in the latter respect; to the volume itself, therefore, we must finally refer the reader who desires more ample satisfaction.

Jo.

ART. II. *Letters on Silesia*, written during a Tour through that Country in the Years 1800, 1801; by his Excellency, John Quincy Adams, then Minister Plenipotentiary from the United States to the Court of Berlin; and since a Member of the American Senate. Embellished with a new Map. 8vo. pp. 400. 8s. Boards. Budd. 1804.

A PREFATORY advertisement informs us that the author of these letters is the eldest son of the late President of the United States of America, and that they were originally addressed to the writer's brother, without any view to publication: but, at the request of some gentlemen of competent taste and judgment, they were allowed to be printed in the *Port Folio*, a miscellaneous paper which is published at Philadelphia. They are now collected, and arranged under two divisions; the first containing a Journal of the Tour, and the second a political and statistical View of Silesia. As that country is very imperfectly known to most English readers, it may be reasonably expected that we should sketch an analysis of the present publication, and extract from it such passages as may help to convey some idea of its merits.

Taking his departure from Berlin, on the 17th of July, 1800, Mr. Adams prosecuted his route by *Frankfort on the Oder*, *Grünberg*, *Sprotau*, *Hirschberg*, the *Riesengebirge*, *Landeshut*, *Schweidnitz*, *Glatz*, *Frankenstein*, *Breslau*, *Liegnitz*, *Lauban*, *Dresden*, and *Leipzig*.

Without dragging our weary steps over the flat and sandy tracts in the neighbourhood of Berlin, we may safely advance to those hills and agreeable spots of cultivation which enliven the approach to Frankfort. A pallid race of mortals, who live in wretched hovels, are thinly scattered over these regions.

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The traveller's report of the manufacture of beet-sugar is by no means favourable:

'At one time,' says he, 'we were assured, beyond all doubt, that one mile square of beets would furnish sugar for the whole Prussian dominions. The question was submitted to a committee of the academy of Sciences, who, after long examination and deliberation, reported, that, in truth, sugar, and even brandy, might be produced from beets, and in process of time might be obtained in great quantities; but that, for the present, it would be expedient to continue the use of sugars and brandies, such as had been hitherto in use. Since this report, we have heard little or nothing of beet-sugar.'—

'The principal curiosity they shewed us was a specimen of the new sugar produced from the beet or turnip, which I have mentioned to you in a former letter. They have made here a few loaves of it, which in external appearance are equal to the very finest sugar from the cane; but it is neither of so close a texture, nor so sweet to the taste. They sent, about two months ago, two loaves of this sugar as samples to the King, who returned them a very gracious letter of thanks, and an elegant gold medal as a reward for their industry. The gentleman who accompanied us, and who is one of the directors of the Company, assured us it was impossible to make this sugar under double the price which that from the West Indies amounts to. From a quintal of the vegetable they can make only four pounds of fine sugar.'

In the short description of Frankfort, the most prominent feature is the nastiness of the Jews; in comparison with which, to adopt the writer's phraseology, the word *filth* conveys an idea of spotless purity. In conformity to the same terse vocabulary, his Excellency terms the deep sandy road to *Crossen*, 'the abomination of desolation.'—Crossen, with a population of 7000 inhabitants, is supported chiefly by the manufacture of broad cloth and the cultivation of the vine. The produce from the latter is extremely precarious: but the soil is little adapted to any thing else.

Mr. Adams, who seldom passes a manufactory of any kind unnoticed, paid his respects to the pottery at Bunzlau, where his curiosity was not wholly unrewarded. In the yard is a pot which contains nearly fifty bushels, is about twelve feet high, is hooped like a barrel, and is kept in a house fitted for its reception:

'But the greatest curiosities of Bunzlau are two mechanical geniuses by the name of Jacob, and of Hüttig, a carpenter, and a weaver who are next-door neighbours to each other. The first has made a machine, in which, by the means of certain clock-work, a number of puppets, about six inches high, are made to move upon a kind of stage, so as to represent in several successive scenes the passion of Jesus Christ. The first exhibits him in the garden at prayer, while the three apostles are sleeping at a distance. In the last

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last he is shewn dead in the sepulchre, guarded by two Roman soldiers. The intervening scenes represent the treachery of Judas, the examination of Jesus before Caiaphas, the dialogue between Pilate and the Jews concerning him, the denial of Peter, the scourging, and the crucifixion. It is all accompanied by a mournful dirge of music; and the maker, by way of explanation, repeats the passages of Scripture which relate the events he has undertaken to shew. I never saw a stronger proof of the strength of the impression of objects, which are brought immediately home to the senses. I have heard and read more than one eloquent sermon upon the passion; but I confess, none of their most laboured efforts at the pathetic ever touched my heart with one half the force of this puppet-show. The traitor's kiss, the blow struck by the high priest's servant, the scourging, the nailing to the cross, the spunge of vinegar, every indignity offered, and every pain inflicted, occasioned a sensation, when thus made perceptible to the eye, which I had never felt at mere description.

'Hüttig the weaver, with an equal, or superior mechanical genius, has applied it in a different manner, and devoted it to geographical, astronomical and historical pursuits. In the intervals of his leisure from the common weaver's work, which affords him subsistence, he has become a very learned man. The walls of his rooms are covered with maps and drawings of his own, representing, here the course of the Oder, with all the towns and villages through which it runs; there the mountains of Switzerland, and those of Silesia, over both of which he has travelled in person. In one room he has two very large tables, one raised above the other; on one of them he has ranged all the towns and remarkable places of Germany, and on the other, of all Europe; they are placed according to their respective geographical bearings. The names of the towns are written on a small square piece of paper, and fixed in a slit on the top of a peg, which is stuck into the table. The remarkable mountains are shewn by small pyramidical black stones, and little white pyramids are stationed at all the spots which have been distinguished by any great battle or other remarkable incident. The man himself, in explaining his work, shews abundance of learning, relative to the ancient names of places, and the former inhabitants of the countries to which he points; and amused us with anecdotes of various kinds, connected with the lands he has marked out. Thus, in shewing us the Alps, he pointed to the spots over which the French army of reserve so lately passed, and where Bonaparte so fortunately escaped being taken by an Austrian officer; and then he gave us a short comment of his own upon the character and extraordinary good fortune of the First Consul. In a second room he has a large machine, representing the Copernican system of the universe: it is made in such a manner, as that the whole firmament of fixed stars moves round our solar system once in every twenty-four hours, and thus always exhibits the stars, in the exact position, relative to our earth, in which they really stand. Internally, he has stationed all the planets which belong to our system, with their several satellites, and all the comets that have been observed during the last three centuries. In a third room he has another machine exhibiting in different parts the various phases of

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the moon; and those of Jupiter's satellites, the apparent motion of the sun round the earth, and the real motion of the earth round the sun.

'In his garret he has another work, upon which he is yet occupied, and which being his last labour, seems to be that in which he takes the most delight. Upon a very large table, similar to that in the first room, he has inlaid a number of thin plates of wood, formed so as to represent a projection of the earth upon Mercator's plan. All the intervals between the plates of wood designate that portion of the world which is covered with water. He has used a number of very small ropes of two colours, drawn over the surface in such a manner as to describe the tracks of all the celebrated circumnavigators of the globe. The colours of the ropes distinguish the several voyages from each other. To three of these great adventurers, who he thinks claim especial pre-eminence above the rest, Columbus, Anson, and Cook, he has shewn a special honour by three little models of ships, bearing their names, which are placed upon the surface of his ocean, in some spot of their respective courses. The names of all the other voyagers, and the times at which their voyages were performed, are marked by papers fixed at the points of their departure. Such is the imperfect description I can give you from a short view of the labours of this really curious man. He must be nearly, or quite seventy years old, and has all his lifetime been of an infirm constitution. But this taste for the sciences, he told us, was hereditary in his family, and had been common to them all, from his great-grandfather down to himself. His dress and appearance were those of a common weaver: but his expressive countenance, at once full of enthusiastic fire and of amiable good-nature, was a model, upon which Lavater might expatiate with exultation. The honest and ingenious weaver, on our taking leave, made us smile by exclaiming, that now, if he could but have a traveller from Africa come to see his works, he could boast of having had visitors from all the four quarters of the globe.'

Hirschberg, with its adjoining linen manufactory and romantic hills, proved an interesting station to the journalist: but we cannot attend him on all his excursions among the mountains. His picture of the Silesian highlanders is far from flattering:

'Their houses are situated at such an elevation upon the mountains that the ground will produce nothing but grass, and they can raise nothing but cows, goats, and a few fowls. For six months in the year they are in a manner buried under the snow, and are cut off from all intercourse with other human beings. Their log huts are of a single story and a hay-loft; the floor below is divided into four apartments, one of which is a stable for their cattle, another their dairy, the third is the common dwelling-place of all the family, and the fourth a very small room for the reception of strangers: the family-room serves at once as kitchen, eating-room, and bed-room, and is heated with fires all the year round. There is a wide bench that goes all round the room, on which they sleep, for they have no beds, or, at most, one for the master and mistress of the house; and

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if the strangers who pass the night there require soft beds, they must content themselves as well as they can with sweet hay, for straw is a luxury unknown to these virtuous patriarchs. As they have not this article for their cows to lie down upon, they keep their stables uncommonly clean, and generally make one of the streams which are so abundant upon the mountains run through them and through the dairy; but their cow-yard, in which all the manure is kept, is close upon the house, so that you nose it at a great distance upon your approach to the house; and by this community of the roof between the family and all the other cattle, so much filthiness arises, that it is scarcely conceivable how they can keep even their dairies clean. Of their persons they appear to take no concern at all, and are, of course, as dirty as any other peasants in the most wretched hovels of Europe. The houses are generally full of children, clad in no other garb than a coarse shirt; oftentimes stark naked, and loaded with vermin like the land of Egypt at the last of its plagues. Such is the condition of these venerable and blissful beings, whom we had heard extolled as the genuine children of nature - the true samples of mankind in the golden age. Their manners are varied, according to their individual characters; all are coarse, most of them disgusting, and some rude and insolent: as to their treatment of strangers, the only two by whom we have been entertained imposed egregiously upon us in their charges.'

Various interesting notices are communicated relative to the manufacture of linens, which we regret that we cannot insert without swelling this article to an immoderate bulk. We must also refer to the work for some judicious and discriminating strictures on the peculiarities of the mountain-towns and their inhabitants, as contrasted with those of the rest of Silesia. We shall, however, for the *entertainment* of our readers, present them with a repast in the house of Mr. Ruck, an eminent linen merchant at Landeshut:

'It was a formal dinner of thirty persons, according to the fashion of the country; we sat down soon after one, and rose from table just before six. The whole of this time is employed in eating; for the ladies and gentlemen all rose together, and there was very little wine drank. But as only one dish is served at a time, and in a dinner of three courses every dish must be handed round to every guest, the intervals between the dishes are of course very long; the usual time of sitting on such occasions, we are told, is about seven hours, but it was here abridged out of complaisance to us. After dinner we walked in the garden, and coffee was served in an arbour, where we sat some time and conversed. As evening came on, the company sat down to cards, and played until eleven, when a cold collation was served in another room. We were now permitted, as strangers, to return to our inn; but the rest of the company continued at their cards and the collation until half past twelve. This is the usual course of a great dinner in Silesia. The company consisted of the principal linen-merchants, and the Lutheran clergy of the place. Among them I found

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I found men of agreeable manners and of considerable information, but none of them spoke any other language than German In general throughout Silesia, speaking French is considered as an affectation of high life, and a sort of ridicule is cast upon it; so that many who are well versed in the language scruple at speaking it even with a stranger.'

In passing through the little town of *Gottesberg*, the industry of the women, boys, and girls, in knitting worsted stockings, suggested this reflection: 'Thus, upon almost every mile of our passage, we behold industry with a different, and always with an useful occupation. But it is always a great alloy to the satisfaction we receive from this prospect, that it is accompanied with that of wretchedness. The poor people, who are thus continually toiling, can scarcely earn a sufficiency for their bare subsistence, and are subjected to various heavy oppressions. The manufactories of linens, in particular, which raise large fortunes to the merchants who export them from the cities, scarcely give bread to the peasants, who do all the valuable part of the work.'

The eighteenth letter contains an amusing account of a carousal and masquerade given at Fürstenstein, in honour of the king and queen of Prussia.

Landeck is described as a pleasant watering-place. 'The bath waters are about milk-warm; those they drink are cold and clear as crystal, but so much impregnated with sulphur, that they taste like bilge-water.'

Breslau forms the subject of two letters. That city contains upwards of 60,000 inhabitants, a great many churches and cloisters, an university, several public buildings which belonged to the college of the Jesuits, a cannon foundery, a manufactory of what is termed Turkish yarn, and another of needles. The large library belonging to the church of St. Elizabeth boasts many valuable manuscripts, one of which is an unmutilated copy of Froissart's Chronicle, written on parchment, and beautifully illuminated. 'We were shewn,' says Mr. Adams, 'another manuscript of a very different kind, though perhaps not less curious. To the naked eye it appears to be a drawing with a pen of the Venus de Medicis, upon a half sheet of folio paper: by looking at it through a magnifying glass, you find it is a copy of Ovid's Art of Love, perfectly legible, and the whole five books within a compass of ten inches in length and three in width.'

From Breslau to Dresden, the author's progress was too precipitate to admit of many observations deserving of particular notice. Dresden has been often described, and one short paragraph is here devoted to Leipzig.

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The length to which our report has already extended, and the comparative shortness of the second part of this volume, permit us not to dilate on its contents. The geographical and historical details, with which it presents us, are dry and scanty: but the statements of the revenues and of the sources of public taxation are clear and satisfactory.

That the *tolerant* Frederic should have continued the *gabelle* on salt, a tax of ten thousand rix dollars on the Jews for being allowed to live in Silesia, and compulsory obligations on the inhabitants to serve in the army and perform personal labour, considerably abates our admiration of a philosophic king. That he ameliorated the condition of the peasantry will not be denied: but he did so in violation of the right of the landlords. 'Such,' observes Mr. Adams, 'is the character of arbitrary power; its only medicines are extracts from the deadliest poisons; its most bounteous charities are but the fruits of robbery.' Yet, let us not forget that the same monarch who could thus trample on public and private justice, zealously exerted himself to procure, for the province which he had conquered, the first of national blessings—the education of its youth. In the work before us, his plan of public schools, and the system of education which he prescribed, are duly commemorated. May they teach an important lesson to the rulers of states and empires!

'Doctor Johnson, in his life of Watts, has bestowed a just and exalted encomium upon him, for not disdaining to descend from the pride of genius and the dignity of science, to write for the wants and the capacities of children. "Every man acquainted," says he, "with the common principles of human actions, will look with veneration on the writer, who is at one time combating Locke, and at another time making a catechism for children in their fourth year." But how much greater still is the tribute of admiration irresistibly drawn from us, when we behold an absolute monarch, the greatest general of his age, eminent as a writer in the highest departments of literature, descending, in a manner, to teach the alphabet to the children of his kingdom; bestowing his care, his persevering assiduity, his influence and his power, in diffusing plain and useful knowledge, among his subjects; in opening to their minds the first and most important pages of the book of science, in filling the whole atmosphere they breathed, with that intellectual fragrance, which had before been imprisoned in the vials of learning, or enclosed within the gardens of wealth!—Immortal Frederick! when seated on the throne of Prussia, with kneeling millions at thy feet, thou wast only a king. On the fields of Leuthen, of Zorndorf, of Rosbach, of so many other scenes of human blood and anguish, thou wast only a hero. Even in thy rare and glorious converse with the Muses and with science, thou wast only a philosopher, an historian, a poet; but in this generous ardour, this active and enlightened zeal for the education of thy people,

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people, thou wast truly great—the father of thy country—the benefactor of mankind.'

In the concluding letter, which treats of the state of literature and science in Silesia, we learn that not fewer than 2000 names of native authors were published in 1680, in the *Silesia Togata*; and that, at present, there are about 500, who have already given public testimonies of their talents on every variety of subjects, and who have written chiefly in the German language. The three of most distinguished eminence are *Opitz*, *Wolff*, and *Garve*. A short biographical sketch of each of these writers is subjoined.

When we regard these letters as the friendly communications of the writer to his brother, we are highly gratified with the solid and amusing information which they contain, and the distinct and easy manner in which that intelligence is conveyed: but, viewing them, on the other hand, as a professed publication, we should sometimes look for a greater diversity of remark, and more sprightliness and purity of style. A skilful disposer of his materials would incorporate the general views with the details, as occasion might offer, or reserve the observations on agriculture, manufactures, commerce, &c. for the statistical division; and thus either avoid the formality of a partition, or endue it with consistency and proportion.

From some incidental passages, we are led to infer that Mr. Adams is no friend to the received doctrine of a division of labour in a manufacturing district; and his reasoning on this subject, though very succinctly stated, is plausible; yet, as it appears to us, inconsistent with fact. To the adoption of this doctrine, England owes her decided superiority in various products of manual industry, the extension of her manufactures, and her ability to compete with foreign markets, notwithstanding her enormous load of taxation. By division and subdivision of mechanical processes, not only are the manufactured articles obtained in greater perfection, and sold at much lower prices than they otherwise could be, but the demand for artisans is increased, and consequently more families are enabled to subsist. If the question be, whether the ignorance and profligacy, which arise out of the present system, are counterbalanced by the advantages of increased wealth and population, the solution becomes more doubtful: but Mr. A. has not glanced at this view of the subject.

In more instances than one, the present tourist raises expectations which are but partially gratified. Thus he contemplated the *Zackerle*-fall from three different positions; none of which, he tells us, should be overlooked: yet the description is very inadequate to a distinct conception of this celebrated cascade. In like

manner, the ninth letter promises grand and sublime painting: but the writer conducts us to the height of four thousand feet, on the *Riesengebirge*, without greatly exalting our sentiments, or imparting much information. The geology of this mountainous range is curiously dispatched in two sentences: 'At the snow-pits, as at the falls, there is every appearance as if the immense masses of granite, of which these mountains consist, had been split and shivered by some great natural convulsion. The basaltic rocks, which rise in irregular pyramidical shafts from the bottom of the pits, to the height of four or five hundred feet, furnish materials for the controversy between the natural philosophers, whether it is a marine or volcanic production.' Does Mr. A. reckon *granite* and *basalt* synonymous terms? If not, can the mountain be said to *consist of immense masses of granite?*—The epithet *marine*, in the same passage, is rather improperly opposed to *volcanic*, since even volcanists maintain that basalt is formed under the surface of the sea, and some of them assert that it cannot have been formed out of it.—The *Riesenkoppe*, or *Giant Mountains*, are celebrated as a principal object of the tour; the intrepid Plenipotentiary ascends to the top, and sees the sun rise, *large as a coach-wheel.* The same effect, he sagely remarks, may be produced by viewing the orb of day through a telescope.—The whole of Silesia, Saxony, and Bohemia pass before his eyes: but admiration is instantly repressed by the chilling reflection that, 'when the eye embraces at once such an extent of objects, it perceives only great masses; whereas all the pleasure that painting can afford is by the accurate representation of details.'—The ascent to the *Heuscheur*, which is so pompously announced, again reminds us of the *mountain in labour.*—Our curiosity was not a little excited by mention of the coal mines near Waldenburg: but the narrative conducts us by a tunnel, or subterraneous canal, to the wor[illegible]nd then leaves us in utter darkness.

Mr. Adams's sentiments, (when he is pleased to introduce them) if not original, are mostly correct and commendable; and therefore the very uncharitable insinuation conveyed in this sentence excites at once our surprize and regret: 'I expected to have found at least some heinous crimes upon the list; but *unless the murder of a priest may be considered as of that denomination*, there was not one.' Is the murder of a priest less criminal than that of a lawyer or physician, or even than that of a Minister Plenipotentiary? We sincerely hope that the clause which we have marked in Italics has been erroneously printed; for we cannot willingly believe that a gentleman of liberal education could allow himself to doubt on the subject. Mair.

Art.

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ART. III. *The Life of a Lover.* In a Series of Letters. By Sophia Lee. 6 Vols. 12mo. 1l. 16s. Boards. Robinsons.

IT is fairly stated to the reader that this novel was written many years ago, 'at that early age when imagination takes the lead of reason.' We certainly discover in it many marks of the warm imagination of youth, and evident traces of a mind more *impassioned* than our grave and sober years can authorize us to sanction or approve. Yet the sentiments and reflections of a general nature, which occur in these pages, and which are very frequently just and beautiful, would have led us to draw a different conclusion, and to assign them to an author who had formed more than a juvenile acquaintance with the world. Even here, however, we are compelled to make some exceptions to that favourable character of the sentiment, which so many passages in this performance deservedly claim. The following remark, for instance, is by no means generally true, and savours rather of disappointment and chagrin than of just and impartial observation: 'The wise of all ages have agreed that virtue is her own reward; and, in truth, she ought to be so; since seldom do persons actuated by that generous principle obtain any other.' It may more truly be affirmed that the world is disposed to be the friend and patron of merit; and that, notwithstanding the selfishness of human nature, a steady adherence to virtue seldom fails in the end to excite both the esteem and the protection of the public. Again, when Cecilia vindicates her conduct in *pocketing* a miniature painting, which she accidentally finds in Lord Westbury's library, entertaining at the same time the strictest veneration for virtue and integrity, we are at a loss to understand the consistency of her *moral code of laws;* and we are not less puzzled, when, on seeing a certain letter in a lady's drawer, she takes the liberty to open and read it, because 'she feels a *kind of right* to know its contents.' Many persons *feel* a similar *kind of right* to appropriate to themselves a share of their neighbour's property: but the law of honour, as well as the law of the land, disallows such a violation of the social compact. Such modes of thinking and acting ought not to be attributed by an author to a character which is held up as a model of virtue, for they are *blemishes* greater than even the plea of female weakness can well extenuate. The apology which the perfect Cecilia makes to herself on such occasions, that *passion* prevailed over *reason*, is only a tacit confession of the *want* of *principle*.

We must now proceed to observe that there are many instances in this work, in which the libertine turn of thought and conduct of certain personages introduced in the narrative is painted with

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more force and precision than become the delicacy of a female writer. We do not mean to assert that no vicious characters should make their appearance in a lady's novel: but we expect that the natural modesty of her sex should contrive to cast a veil over such images as would bespeak, if exposed, loose and irregular ideas in the writer's mind, and are calculated for other purposes than the *moral improvement* of the reader. To introduce a libertine endeavouring '*to overcome his sweet girl's scruples*,' by insinuating that the sacred writings are not worthy to be obeyed in these cases, that chastity is a *mere prejudice*, and that her notions of virtue are *too refined*, is probably to give too faithful a picture of vice: but we lament that the fair author should have ever heard such *arguments*, or should have suffered her mind to contemplate their force and efficacy. We do not even consider it as delicate in a female to admit such an expression as this: 'The restless irresolution of *unsatisfied love*.' Vol. II. page 42.

After having remarked on these imperfections, which we felt it our duty to notice, and the more particularly because this writer's talents are so well known and appreciated by the public, we must do Miss Lee the justice to specify some passages among a great variety of similar merit, which exhibit a mind richly endowed by nature, and stored by art and judicious observation. We first select an excellent remark on education:—

'Teach children to reflect, and they will soon know how to *behave*. The great error in modern education is confining the mind to a regular set of lessons and modes, while all the powers of reflection remain unexercised: let it become a *habit to think* before the inferior habits of life shall have extinguished emulation, and ranked your protégée among those who are undone by the prodigality of nature or of fortune.'

The art *of thinking for themselves*, as we lately observed in our review of a work intitled "Letters on History," is of vast importance to be encouraged in young persons. We much approve also these useful reflections, and think that, in this age of politeness, they are well worthy of being selected:

'The more I observe upon life, the more I see that a *polite blindness* to the faults of those around us leads them on in errors which a timely hint might have prevented; and that however eligible delicacy may in some instances be, in others it brings virtue and vice too much upon a level.

'In the middle rank of society we are linked so much by common interests, that we dare not act up to the sense of integrity existing in our own souls; but when once we are elevated high enough to be candid, our country expects in each individual an example, and has perhaps a right to demand one. To acquiesce, thus circumstanced, through an indolent politeness, with any custom which our reason disapproves

disapproves, is in effect to abet immorality in inferiors: and notwithstanding a decided mode of thinking and acting will draw on me either the censure of pride or presumption, what my conscience disapproves shall never be countenanced by my conduct.'

As we have entered thus principally into the general merits of 'The Life of a Lover,' in regard to its sentiments and moral tendency, we shall only just hint at the outline of the plan, and the conduct of the story.

Cecilia Rivers, the heroine of the tale, being left in narrow circumstances at the death of her father, a worthy clergyman, determines to live independent of her relations by becoming a private governess. After an unsuccessful experiment in this line, she enters the family of Lord Westbury, with whom a mutual attachment commences, and forms the principal features of the history. In the third volume, Lord Westbury becomes free by the death of Lady W., and seeks Cecilia on the Continent: but, by a very improbable plan of conduct, a misunderstanding between them arises, and serves to lengthen the narrative beyond a period at which it would have more happily and properly closed. Cecilia now forms a nominal marriage with an aged Colonel; but he shortly afterward dies; and she at length becomes the *virgin* bride of Lord W. After this desired event, however, the lovers are made to misunderstand each other too often, and too inconsistently with such a firm and rooted affection. These incidents contribute to prolong the tale more than to interest the reader; and he becomes less affected than he would otherwise have been at the death of Cecilia, towards the close of the last volume. Had this Life of a Lover been half its present length, and certain licentious passages been obliterated, together with those incorrect sentiments on moral conduct to which we have alluded, it would have formed a very interesting, elegant, and instructive novel.

Cecilia's first *entrée*, on her vocation of governess, will amuse the reader;

'The novelty of the situation so wholly occupied my thoughts, that I only knew I was come to Broad-street by the stopping of the vehicle. Ah! how useless is our understanding on a thousand occasions! Mine, every moment, told me that I need hardly dread the lady I was going to see, since it was very unlikely that she should equal in mind and manners many with whom I had often mixed. The awkwardness of being announced in an inferior light—of becoming my own historian and panegyrist;—a thousand nameless, but overwhelming, sensations,—made every gift of nature at that moment a mere burden; and gladly would I have compounded for rejection, unseen and uncatechised. Lady Grantham was, however, at home; and I was ushered into a drawing-room, where she was already sitting

ting. Mrs. Forrester had certainly not laboured in vain to give me consequence; for my appearance seemed no less to impress the lady than the footman, who employed himself busily in removing two lazy lap-dogs from the arm-chair on the vacant side of the fire, while she was courtesying and apologising: but the sight of the note I presented, which was that sent to me in her name, rectified her error. She instantaneously dismissed the man; and guiding me, by a haughty glance of her eye, to a seat so far from the fire, that I found my worthy friend's muff very commodious, she began to examine the note, and I to survey her dress. That of the city ladies we have often heard ridiculed; but it was only now that I could know with what reason. Laden with expensive fineries, poor Lady Grantham gave a lamentable proof of want of taste. She had been dressing for dinner; and the sacque she wore was loaded with French trimmings enough for three!—while her head, of an enormous height, was frosted alike by art and nature, and adorned with flowers;—her whole figure forming, from its rotundity, an absolute conical mountain, the lower part covered with roses, and the summit with snow. Having perused the note, she did not hesitate to turn in silence towards your poor blushing Cecilia, of whose outside she took as exact a survey as ever I had done of hers; then, rudely addressing me,—

"You are the parson that advertised in this here paper—are you, Miss—what's your name?"

I bowed.

"Pray, was you ever out in the world before?"

"I returned from France, Madam, only last week."

"Ay! that was right enough! all genteel governesses, now-a-days, come from France. And, pray, what do you purtend to larn young ladies?"

"To speak and write English and French; all kinds of elegant work; embroidery, and tambour. I know something, too, of Italian; and have been thought a little skilled in music."

"I pray, Miss, do you live with your parents?"

"My mother I lost, Madam, in my infancy; and my father, who was a clergyman, something more than a year ago. In him, unhappily, I lost both the best protection and prospects."

"Hum!" cried she, as I wept, with inexpressible humiliation—"A great loss, a monstrous great loss, indeed!—How old may you be, Miss?"

"Just one-and-twenty, Madam."

"And what terms do you ax?"

"Forty pounds a-year, Madam, and a chamber to myself; with such consideration in the family as my education, and, I hope, my conduct, will entitle me to."

"These here terms, Miss, are purdigious high! My daughter (to spell as she pronounces) is quite accomplished—completely edicated;—but she is too young to come out yet. She was six years at a great boarding-school, within a stone's-throw of our country-house; and her governess says she talks French better than herself. You will have nothing, in a manner, to teach: indeed, you will be more my

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my companion, as well as hers. I should hardly think of such a useless kind of parson, but to be in the fashion; for every body has a French governess now, I think! Can you do plain-work neatly?"

"In a household manner: I never made that a study."

"Fifty times more useful, Miss, though, than all your imbrydery and tom bores! We always makes all our linen at home; and, if you come to me, you must lend a helping hand - beside working my things, and Jemmy's waistcoats."

"I shall never object to becoming useful to your Ladyship, in any proper manner."

"So you had need, Miss—what's your name!—Forty pounds a-year keeps many a poor parson and his family:—not that I should begrudge it, had you been a Frenchwoman born! Lady Grimstead, my next-door neighbour, has got a real French governess for her daughter, who can't speak one word of English; and they only gives her forty guineas! However, you seem a genteel conformable-kind of body; so, for once, I will be a little extravagant!—As to a chamber to yourself, I have not a spare one in my house; but you will sleep with my daughter, and always dine and sup with the family, as well as go with us to the villa every Saturday.—Who am I to ax about you?"

"Lady Browne was my father's old friend, and has known me from my childhood. She lives at Kensington, and permits this reference."

"Well! I will call of her, when I go to the villa, on Saturday; and let you know when I wish you to come here."

'Lady Grantham having thus concluded this original harangue, which I have given you verbatim, rang, and ordered my pupil to appear.'

Cecilia's introduction next to the family of Lady Westbury is thus agreeably drawn:

'I found your sister-in-law, my dear, quite unhappy, lest I should lose the opportunity of fixing with Lady Westbury: nor was I without a secret wish of being in a family so elegant and distinguished. The history of the lady we all know; but of her beauty we very imperfectly judge, however highly it may have been spoken of;—it is, indeed, exquisite! I saw her, too, in the situation most disadvantageous—under the hands of her friseur; yet was I enchanted! She varies her humour, I really believe, every moment, only to display her charms. She now found fault with the man—now laughed at him; yet was ever lovely, ever irresistible! To talk to a governess was quite novel to her! She "wished people would print catechisms applicable to the common concerns of life:"—and broke off her inquiry into my qualifications for the employment, to ask where I had got that sweet morning cap! Hearing I had purchased it in Paris, she would have it off my head in a moment, to see if it became her: what cap would not! She was fascinated with it; and became perfectly satisfied, that the woman who had taste enough to dress well, must have talents for whatever else she might undertake. Her milliner was summoned by express:—but two minutes had hardly elapsed ere

ere she raved at the tediousness of the creature; and, having made up her mind not to part with the dear cap, implored me to take one of her frightful things in its place, which would confer an everlasting obligation on her. Fifty caps were tumbled over, that she might find one twice as valuable as that she kept; and my compliance so bound her to me, that I made my own terms. I am to have a salary of fifty pounds a-year, and a chamber to myself, adjoining to that of the young ladies; to whom the whole attic story is appropriated. A table is to be served for them and me; and a carriage to be allotted for us to take the air in. This arrangement once fixed, Lady Westbury told me, that, if I had any more stipulations to make, she must give me a carte-blanche; and ran away to her vis-a-vis—as gay as she was lovely. Never did I see so volatile, so beautiful, so fascinating, so unformed a young creature!'

We soon afterward meet with these judicious reflections, suggested by the character of Lady Westbury; the levity of which rendered her and the Earl by no means a happy pair:

'Had this young lady been better educated, the evil, in all probability, had never happened. Women may not be calculated for those deep studies which give dignity to man: but when they have no resource in the love of reading (which mostly produces, if the books be judiciously chosen, taste, elegance, and sensibility, together with a contempt for those pleasures which neither give rise to, nor will bear, reflexion), they must, of course, snatch at each temporary amusement, with which to beguile the present hour; and pass all those not engrossed by sleep, in contriving how, alike, they can dissipate the future. Of all habits, that of mental indolence is the most fatal, as it is for ever increasing.

'Men of literature have, I know not why, thought it right to confine the studies of the other sex within a very narrow compass. Would they wish a wife to have no other advantage over her maid, than a handsomer gown, or a prettier face? Yet these very men are not always proof against the disgust which ignorance induces; and they then, ungenerously, censure the soil for being barren, which they know was never cultivated! Nature and observation may supply all the sense that is necessary to govern our conduct upon common occasions; but education must quicken and refine that sense into intellect, before life can become enjoyment. It is in the capacity of increasing their knowledge, that the human race is superior to the brute; and the benignant Giver of all good has not restricted that capacity to half the human race!'

We shall conclude our extracts with the character of the gouty Colonel Percival, whom Cecilia afterward married:

'There is something mighty eccentric in this old Colonel; yet has he warmth of heart, and many good qualities. I was left to entertain him yesterday evening, and my eyes were, perhaps, red with weeping; for, after playing at backgammon for a short time, almost in silence, he laid down the box.

"Come:" said he, "I see that you do not know what you are about: ring the bell, and let us brighten up our faculties with a cup of

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of coffee; and, in the mean time, we will talk soberly. What! has my demure sister touched you up your funeral sermon, or my madcap Bess spoiled your new gown? Never mind her tricks, for she is very truly attached to you, and spends half the time she bestows upon me, in crying you up for a nonsuch."

'I could not be insensible to so much kindness, especially as I knew that in showing it he departed from his natural character. With thanks for his inquiry, I assured him, "that none of his surmises were just; nor was it impossible to have many causes for grief, without referring for a moment to a family who all treated me with the utmost distinction."

"Nay," cried he, twisting his foot, and roaring with the pain, "it may be about money thou art vexing!—never, mind, child, while we have some amongst us. What am I the better for making my fortune!—This cursed toe would twinge me much the same, if the stool it lies on was made of solid gold. What! not money neither?—Oh, ho! I shall guess now for fifty pounds; and had I not been an old fool, I might have guessed as well at first: all this pining, I warrant me, is for a sweet-heart.—Ah, ha! I have primed the right gun then at last? Come! tell me thy vexation, and we'll see what can be done to make thee happy. I have money enough to bestow a little on my little nurse, and Bess won't grudge it to you."

'How much true generosity was couched in these common expressions! It at once opened my heart; and, thanking him with a warmth proportioned to the kindness, I assured him, that the grief I felt was among the few which money could not remedy.

"Ay!" cried he; "are you such a chicken yet? I should be glad to know any grief that money will not more or less remedy? So, pray, if you set any value upon my friendship, tell me yours."

'I could not refuse a request urged from such motives; and, concealing the condition of my lover, told him the simple fact. Whether he was disposed to feel; for I drest my tale in touching language; or whether the tears of a young woman give effect to her words, I know not: certain it is, that his great chair never seemed more uncomfortable to the worthy man. He threw himself from one side to the other, and thumped his fist on the table, till I started; with now and then an exclamation in proportion to the provocation. When I finished, he shook my hand till my shoulder ached.

"I'll tell thee what, Cicely: thou hast met with more misfortunes at twenty-three, than ever I did at thrice thy age!—but that comes of being a woman. Od' if thou couldst have sent a bullet through his paper skull, or whipt a small-sword through the puppy's lungs, he would have thought twice before he would have dared thee to it. Thou art a cursed fool though, to cry thy eyes out for such a whiffler! Did'st ever see Ned Percival? he is a pretty lad enough, and a good one too; worth a regiment of such fellows. One day he will come in snacks with Bess Egerton for all that I have in the world, but not unless he takes you into the bargain We will send for him to-morrow, and, if he hits your fancy, we'll have a little snug wedding of our own, on purpose to spite that scoundrel."

'Good

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'Good God, my dear! how strangely are characters compounded! When he saw me sinking, dying, with the unkindness of the man whom it was plain I adored, to imagine that I should have the indelicacy to accept another! Hardly could I conceal my contempt while I coldly assured him that this incident had put a period to all my views in this life!

"Well, well," cried he: "no harm done. Do not have the lad if thou dost not like it; and you are simple enough, I dare say like many other foolish girls, to hanker after Mr.—No, I do not ask his name; I won't know it: remember never tell it to me, lest I treat the puppy as he merits, if ever he comes within the latitude of my crutch."

From the cursory view, which we have taken of this production, our readers will be able to judge for themselves how far it merits their attention. They will see that, although too prolix, it is of a superior class of novels, both in point of language and of the interest which it excites: but that, while it is rich in sentiments which all must approve, it contains some of a less correct nature, and cannot in all its parts be submitted with prudence and safety to the innocence and inexperience of youth. Mar.

ART. IV. *Antiquities, historical, architectural, chorographical, and itinerary, in Nottinghamshire*, and the adjacent Counties, interspersed with biographical Sketches. Part II. Vol. I. By William Dickinson, Esq. 4to. pp. 344. 18s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

To the inhabitants of Southwell and its vicinity, this gentleman's labours must be very acceptable; and especially to those who are animated with a spark of antiquarian fire, since he has been peculiarly assiduous in investigating every circumstance in that department relative to this portion of the kingdom. Much of the former part of the work * was occupied with researches into the history of the church and town of Southwell, and in the pages before us the subject is continued. The chapters, into which this second part is divided, treat of the Constitution of the Church of Southwell, of its revenues, and of the places from which they arise,—of its founders, benefactors, and patrons,—of the antiquities of the parish and neighbourhood of Southwell, and of its modern history.

In detailing the constitution of this celebrated collegiate church, Mr. D. carries us back to the earliest periods of its

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* See M. Rev. Vol. xliii. N. S. p. 115.

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records, when popish superstition contributed to fertilize (as he expresses it) the garden of the clergy; and when the endowment of chauntries, and the placing of enormous wax-candles on the altar of a favourite saint, constituted the sublimity of religion. The officers of the Cathedral, from the prebendaries down to the *dog-whipper*, are enumerated; as well as the lands from which their incomes arise. 'It may be difficult,' Mr. D. observes, 'to determine, with precision, what was the original constitution of the church of Southwell, at the time of its original foundation; with how many prebends it was endowed, or in what manner and proportion their revenues were distributed: it appears, however, that about the latter end of the reign of William I., there were at least ten Prebends.' A record in the Augmentation carries its history higher, and reports King Edgar to have been the founder of this church, when it consisted of sixteen prebends and as many vicars choral: but its history, at this remote period, is enveloped in uncertainty, especially with respect to the particulars of its constitution. From the Conquest to the time of Edward III. it was gradually rising in consequence: but it was not till the reign of this prince that it received a firm establishment, which it obtained by a royal confirmation of all its privileges and immunities. The general reader would not be interested in the accounts, which Mr. D. has furnished, of the several parishes and districts belonging to the different stalls of this cathedral; yet a memorandum, respecting the customs of Norwell, a village situated about ten miles north of Southwell, and which furnishes provision for three prebendaries in that church, is a curiosity, and may be amusing: it is extracted from entries made in the reign of Henry IV.

"Memorandum.—That all the tenants of the Lord, in bondage, as well free as natives, in Norwell, Woodhouse, and Willoughby, whereof three only are natives, being charged to declare the truth, concerning the customs and services of their tenements, say, that every one holding a bovate of land, or any messuage in the place of a bovate, ought to plough one day in sowing time in the winter, receiving from the Lord, for that work, wheaten bread and pease to the value of three pence, and to harrow with one horse, receiving, for the same, bread to the value of two pence; likewise he is bound to do the same services, at lent sowing, at the same price: also to weed with an hoe, for which he is to receive bread to the value of an halfpenny; he ought also, together with his companions, to mow the Lord's meadows in Northying, containing thirteen acres, for which he and the rest of the mowers of the same meadow, whose number is twenty four, shall eat in the Prebendal-house as follows: first, they shall have bread and beer, potage, beef, pork, and lamb, for the first course; and for the second, broth, pigs, ducks, veal or lamb roasted; and, after dinner, they are to sit and drink, and then go in and out of the hall

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three times, drinking each time they return; which being done, they shall have a bucket of beer, containing eight flagons and an half, which bucket ought to be carried on the shoulders of two men through the midst of the town, from the Prebendal-house unto the aforesaid meadow, where they are to divert themselves with plays the remainder of the day, at which plays the Lord shall give two pair of white gloves. On the day following, the mowing shall be made into heaps, for which work they shall have from the Lord four pence only, to drink; and when the hay shall have become dry, all the twenty four tenants shall carry the same unto the manse of the prebend, and there house it, for which they shall have, in bread, to the value of a penny per cart load, and each person assisting thereat (called treaders) shall have, for his work, bread, in value an halfpenny; and the aforesaid twenty four tenants shall mow three acres of the Lord's meadow in the Moor, and they, with the tossers, carrying the hay from the same meadow, shall toss it once, and every one working thereat shall have, from the Lord, bread, to the value of an halfpenny; and the Lord shall dispose of the rest; and every tenant holding an entire bovate of land, shall, with his companions, reap, &c. the Lord's corn, from the beginning to the end of autumn, with two men, receiving from the Lord, each day, for every one at work, bread to the value of one penny, and three herrings: likewise every tenant shall carry two cart loads of corn from the fields of Norwell to the manse of the prebend, and shall not therefore receive, from the Lord, any thing; and, at the end of autumn, the Lord shall give, to all his tenants so mowing, four pence, to drink, and one pair of white pigeons."

In the chapter dedicated to founders, benefactors, and patrons, Paulinus, the reputed first archbishop of York, said to have been consecrated A. D. 625, on the authority of the venerable Bede, is asserted to have been the founder of the church of Southwell. How far this is fact or fable, it is of no importance now to inquire. The first instance of liberality to this ecclesiastical establishment, on authentic record, is that of Eadwy, king of England; who bestowed on Oscitel, his favourite, archbishop of York, and patron of this church, all the royal demesne in Southwell. In a subsequent paragraph, Mr. Dickinson explains the reason of this monarch's generosity:

'In the reign of this Eadwy it was, that the monks began to rise in esteem and influence. The crown, at this time, appears to have been elective, and the clergy to have entirely influenced the elections. The diadem had been placed on the head of Eadwy by the secular clergy, in opposition to the monks; therefore he, in return, amply endowed *their* societies.'

Most of the early archbishops of York are found among the benefactors of Southwell; and the author, who professes only to deal obliquely in biography, after the mention of their names in chronological order, subjoins, in notes, some spirited

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and well-written sketches of their history; by which this work is considerably enlivened, and its value augmented.

The note which delineates the character of the versatile and time-serving Aldred, archbishop of York, the favourite of king Edward the Confessor, the supporter of Harold, and after his defeat the avowed advocate of William, exhibits a trait of the arrogance of the priesthood at that period, which is not unworthy of record:

'Offended with the sheriff of Yorkshire, and unable to get redress, without a personal application to the throne, Aldred hastened up to London. Habited *in pontificalibus*, and attended by a numerous train, he went to the King, whom he found in council at Westminster. Bursting through the crowd, he saluted the Monarch with a heavy curse, if he did not grant his suit. William, perhaps as much alarmed by the novelty, as by the violence of this address, fell at the Archbishop's feet. The Lords of the council beheld, with indignation, the imperious prelate thus insulting his sovereign, and, remonstrating on the impropriety of suffering the King to kneel, would have assisted in raising him from the ground. The Archbishop arrogantly replied; "stand off, let him lie there; it is not at *my* feet, but at those of St. Peter he is prostrate."

The benefactions under each reign are distinctly mentioned: but we shall pass from the Conquest to the time of Henry VIII. in order to notice, with the commendation which it so truly deserves, the magnanimous effort of Mr. Dickinson to render justice to the memory of Cardinal Wolsey; a man who, with all his faults, possessed a mind of unusual capacity and energy; and whose character, considering the difficult circumstances in which he acted, has been generally traduced and undervalued. Mr. D. remarks that

'It has been one of the common observations of mankind, and it has formed the principal solace of many an unfortunate, or unpopular minister, that, when the prejudices of disappointed dependants, the jealousy of rival cotemporaries, or the spleen of a capricious monarch, have ceased to influence the opinions of the public, posterity have done justice to the characters of those who have deserved well of their country. The fate of Wolsey forms, indeed, a singular, and an awful exception; because he was not *good*, the world has reluctantly allowed him to be *great*; because he had not the virtues of a bishop, mankind have usually denied him the qualities of a minister. A mere outline of this extraordinary man's character will be the utmost, to which the limits of a note will allow me to extend my observations. In those, perhaps, some new reasoning, on notorious facts, may be found; but it is right to premise, that little merit of discovery is claimed, as the general source of my intelligence is Dr. Fiddes's history of Wolsey's life, and the authorities therein cited. Had the doctor done that justice to the subject of his treatise, which his mate-

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rials might have enabled him, *this* attempt would have been unnecessary.'

Mr. D. then subjoins a succinct account of Wolsey, in which the events of his life are reviewed in a judicious manner, and the minister of Henry is delineated with precision:

'Of all men whose manners history has recorded, Wolsey was best able, by the versatility of his talents, to please such a monarch as his master. Henry was indolent, haughty, arbitrary, enthusiastic, and debauched. Every one of these qualities this minister was peculiarly fitted to flatter. With a capacity equal to bear the whole burthen of government; a dignity of person, and majesty of manner, that seemed the counterpart of Henry's; a firm persuasion of the unlimited power of Kings; a taste for disputation, with a peculiar facility of appearing to be convinced; uncommon vivacity, when not under the restraint of decorum; he could always adapt himself to the fluctuating humor of his master, and the exigencies of the hour. He could, with the same facility, dance, or sing, or partake of a debauch, as he could direct the operations of war, or give audience to the representatives of sovereigns. Those who know the human heart, must perceive of how great value such a minister must be to Henry. Is it matter of surprise then, that grant after grant, and preferment after preferment, should be lavished on a man whose talents were invaluable to their employer, because the loss of them was not to be supplied from any other quarter? Is it matter of surprise that the favourite of such a King should amass wealth, power, and honors, when they were so easy to be obtained? The only enquiry to be made, is, did he sacrifice the welfare of the kingdom to his own emolument? Historians in general, have taken for granted that he did; but not one has advanced any evidence to prove it, which is not capable of another interpretation. Let us examine the transactions in which he was most notoriously concerned, and we shall find, what Godwin says, to be strictly true, "that never did the interest of England prosper so well after the fall of Wolsey, as while he directed her affairs."—

'The large sums of money, and ample revenues, which Wolsey received from foreign powers, have been considered as a decisive proof of his corruption. To this much may be said; so much, indeed, that, without incontestible proofs of guilt, the strongest arguments may be inferred from it in favour of the Cardinal's innocence. If he did not betray the interests of his country, while he promoted his own, no blame is to be imputed to him on the public account; but, it should seem, a man, so well versed in human affairs as Wolsey, would not have accepted emoluments, the magnitude, the mode of accruing, the frequency, and the notoriety of which, could not possibly escape the detection of rival courtiers; and, consequently, could not fail to produce the foulest suspicions respecting the integrity of him, who received them without the knowledge of the King. I would rather suppose that the pensions, which were paid to Wolsey, were by the consent of Henry; who, always profuse, and always poor, was glad to

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to have so good a storehouse for treasure, which he could, at most times, borrow, and could, at any time, dedicate irrevocably to his own extravagance, by the sacrifice of his minister. It was below the King's dignity to receive pensions from foreign courts; but, by these means, his rapacity was gratified, while he might hope his honor was saved. A strong argument, in favor of this supposition, is Hampton court palace being built by the directions, and with the money, of Wolsey; but for Henry's habitation.

'This composes the sum and substance of the Cardinal's public conduct. For this, so much obloquy has been thrown on his reputation; and, in support of the sentence, every thing which malignity could suggest to a mischievous imagination, or credulity propagate, has been raked from the repositories, where the rancorous malice of the Cardinal's rival cotemporaries had placed them, by indiscriminating reporters, for the purpose of blackening his character. War was never proclaimed, nor peace ratified, according to these historians, but for the purpose of promoting Wolsey to the papacy. That he aspired to that dignity is undoubted. That he did so was meritorious whether it was to gratify his own ambition, or whether it was to serve the country that produced him, and the monarch under whose genial influence he had ripened into a situation that enabled him to become a candidate. It is well said, by Bishop Burnet, in his history of the reformation, that "while Wolsey ruled the councils of England, she never engaged in an alliance, which was not to her advantage." Such a declaration, from such a man, is better than a volume of arguments, and is a sufficient answer to such improbable accusations, so feebly supported. Hume also, in his history, observes that "the subsequent conduct of Henry was so much more criminal than that, which had been influenced by Wolsey, that one must attribute much more blame to the King's violent temper, than to the Cardinal's improper counsels."

From a literary man, Wolsey may be expected to receive the praise of being the most splendid Mæcenas of his day. Indeed his endowments for the promotion of religion and letters were so truly princely, that, to use the language of Shakspeare, "Christendom shall ever speak his virtue." Mr. D. gives to Wolsey the credit of making the first effort towards the Reformation, and the facts which he states appear to justify him in his representation. The Cardinal's public munificence in favour of learning is acknowleged to have been great: but, continues his present biographer, 'the whole of the splendid foundations which he erected, taken together, were not so effectual, in their operation, towards the advancement of the end in view, as the *means* by which he enabled himself to endow these new formed societies. The corruption of the times, and especially in the manners of the clergy, was the subject of complaint among all orders of mankind. Wolsey's discernment could not but discover the source of the evil; but to apply a remedy was an

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object the difficulty of which was only surpassed by his resolution to overcome it. The monasteries, he well knew, were the temples of superstition, ignorance, and vice; but they were also the pillars, on which that mighty superstructure, the dominion, and the faith, of Rome, was supposed to rest.' Mr. D. is therefore convinced that Wolsey as a professor of that faith, and a minister of that dominion, whatever might be his private opinion of its authority, felt that he must proceed with caution in his meditated attack on its foundations. 'He knew he was, of late, suspected to have no veneration for the apostolical see, beyond the emoluments which his submission to it furnished him; he knew, therefore, that an unqualified abolition of any of those faithful fraternities, would raise a clamor againt him, sufficient to defeat his project. The wary Cardinal first convoked an assembly of divines, as we are informed in the history of the reformation, at his own house; by whom he procured the doctrines of Luther to be solemnly condemned. This acceptable service done to the court of Rome, at once silenced suspicion, and ensured compliance. Immediately after this, he applied for his holiness's permission to suppress some of the smaller monasteries, for the purpose of erecting colleges, and endowing seminaries of useful learning, and religious education.'

'Let me not be understood to mean, that it was Wolsey's design to overturn the national faith, or the ceremonies of its establishment. To a mind fond, as his was, of splendor and parade, it offered too many allurements, to be relinquished without regret; but, if we advert to the articles of his impeachment, to the testimonies of historians respecting his moderation toward the reformers, and above all, to several letters of Wolsey's cotemporaries, addressed to Luther, and Erasmus, one must rather be determined to follow, as Wood says in his Athen. Oxon. "the traditionary reporters and credulous transcribers of narratives, dictated by envy, contempt, and hatred," than the evidence of our own senses, not to perceive that it was Wolsey's design to suppress those receptacles of corruption, the monasteries; to reform the manners of the clergy; and to annihilate that imperium in imperio, the dominion of Rome within the realm of England.'

The disgrace and miserable end of this minister and ecclesiastic, who once lived in regal splendor, and was attended by "a livery'd army and by menial Lords," have been adduced by poets and moralists as most striking proofs of the vanity of human greatness: but Mr. D. speaks of him among the benefactors of Southwell, as 'one of the greatest of men who ever presided over this or any other church,' and sums up his general character, as 'a man in whom there was something to be blamed, more to be pitied, and most of all to be admired.'

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Under the reign of Queen Elizabeth, Archbishop Sandys is mentioned as a probable benefactor, since he resided at Southwell the greatest part of his prelacy; and memoirs of him are subjoined in a note. In reporting the local transactions during the reigns of George I. and II. the lives of the prelates Herring and Hutton are also given: but we have copied enough from the contents of this chapter. That part of the volume which relates to antiquities is of inferior interest. Mr. D. combats, with much reason, the opinion respecting the remains of an encampment in Hexgrave Park, that it belonged to the Romans: but, if we accede to his negative demonstration in this particular, we see little ground to justify his surmise 'that Hexgrave Park is more likely to have been the temporary asylum of John and his army, or of his competitors, than a station of the Britons, Romans, Saxons, or Danes.' A discovery, however, is mentioned in a note, by which this conjecture is said to be confirmed; viz. that the initials of King John's name, surmounted with a blunted radiated crown, have been discovered cut in solid wood, over which the bark and sap had grown to the thickness of several inches. This is stated as a fact: but is it possible that initials, cut in a growing tree six hundred years ago, should be preserved? We should rather be inclined to believe, if such letters were found on a tree in Sherwood Forest, that they were not carved by King John's soldiers, but by some individual at a very subsequent period. We beg to caution Mr. D. against the credulity of the professed antiquary; and we trust that he will prosecute the remainder of his undertaking with that sound judgment and rational discrimination, which generally pervade the parts already executed.

Several plates and pedigrees of families are inserted in this volume; among which is the genealogical tree of the Dickinson family. We are told, p. 165, that the author's seat is called *Muskham Grange*, is surrounded by several hundred acres of land, and that to the house large additions have been lately made, in which spacious apartments and convenient appendages have been the principal object of attention. Hence it may be concluded that Mr. Dickinson enjoys what seldom falls to the critic's share, *Otium cum dignitate.*

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ART. V. *Remarks on Michaelis's Introduction to the New Testament*, Vols. III. IV. translated by the Rev. Herbert Marsh, and augmented with Notes. *By way of Caution to Students in Divinity.* Second Edition, with a Preface and Notes, in Reply to Mr. Marsh. 8vo. pp. 122. 2s. 6d. White.

ART. VI. *Letters to the anonymous Author of Remarks* on Michaelis and his Commentator, relating especially to the Dissertation on the Origin and Composition of our three first canonical Gospels. By Herbert Marsh, B.D. F.R.S. Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge. 8vo. pp. 39. 1s. Rivingtons.

BETWEEN free inquiry and implicit faith, no middle path can in fact be taken; and when examination is restrained by a timid caution, we must not look for any satisfactory result. Such half measures may wear the appearance of calmness and moderation: but they are not flattering to Truth, who, being of a strong and vigorous constitution, dares her enemies to the utmost, and shuns no conflict to which she is invited. When the maxim is "Inquire not too deeply," suspicions will arise; and apologies, thus prefaced, will be more injurious to revelation than scepticism itself. Justin Martyr, in recommending the cause of religion to the Gentiles, reminds them of the necessity of accurate research:

Των πραγματων ακριβης εξετασις, (says he) και τα δοξαντα καλως; εχει πολλακις; αλλοιοτερα δεικνυσιν, ακριβεστερα πειρα ταληθες βασανισασα.

The evidences of the Gospel are so broad and stable, that we need be under no apprehension for those Students in Divinity who will take the pains of examining them to the bottom; and as to researches into the history of the sacred text, we by no means agree with the author of the present 'Remarks,' that these 'may be pursued too far, and attended with some danger.' In explaining the origin and composition of the first three Gospels, Mr. Marsh's hypothesis of a common written document may be liable to some objections, and is certainly a fair subject of public discussion among biblical scholars: but we think that Mr. M. has some ground of complaint against his opponent, for the unhandsome, not to say illiberal, insinuation conveyed in his title page; as if the learned translator and commentator of Michaelis had proceeded unfairly, and, by derogating from the character of the sacred books, was in fact their enemy, while he pretended to hold them in veneration. Had the 'Remarks' been published merely as an Examination of Mr. M.'s Dissertation, and not 'by way of caution' against it, Mr. Marsh could have taken no offence, and would probably have been less irritated in his reply.—The author of the 'Remarks' is of opinion that Mr. M.'s hypothesis of a *written* document prior

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prior to the Evangelists is inadmissible, and affords no reasonable account of the several *particularities* (which Mr. M. affectedly enough terms *phænomena*,) belonging to them: but he especially objects to it as derogating from the Inspiration and credibility of the Gospels.

Though we cannot accord with the anonymous author in all his strictures, yet some parts of his examination, and particularly the subjoined notes, are intitled to Mr. Marsh's consideration: but if a belief in the Inspiration of the Gospels be necessary to their authenticity and credibility, we apprehend that Students in Divinity ought as well to be cautioned against these Remarks, as against those of Michaelis and his commentator; and the writings of both may be alike reprobated as 'having a mischievous tendency.'

It is difficult for us to enter into the precise ideas which the author of these 'Remarks' entertains on the subject of Inspiration. He strenuously contends that the Evangelists wrote under its influence; and yet, when he explains himself, he asserts only 'a low degree of Inspiration,' which appears to us to be very little preferable to *no* Inspiration. We are informed p. 10. that 'the Evangelists may be conceived to have been at liberty to transpose *ad libitum*, or at least within certain limits;' and at p. 14. that 'the Evangelists were left [in minute circumstances] to their own recollection, and to the common variations of memory among men;' yet this anonymous author repeatedly quotes the promise of the Holy Spirit to the Apostles, who was to bring *all things* to their remembrance. It is presumed, however, that this promise must be taken with some limitation, in as much as plenary Inspiration would be 'a great waste of Inspiration;' and it is even admitted that 'perfect identity of narrative was not necessary for the purposes of Providence.'

We will not say that this account is ludicrous, but it is completely unsatisfactory. What sort of Inspiration is that which leaves the writer, who is under its powerful influence, *ad libitum*; which sometimes assists him to recollect, and at others allows him to fall into mistakes; which will not enable him to produce a book perfect in all its details, but only a book 'bearing a near resemblance to Xenophon's Memorabilia?' When a writer is left to the common variations or slips of memory, he in fact is not inspired; and when perfect identity of narrative in the Gospels is asserted to be unnecessary, it is an admission that Inspiration is unnecessary, and that the concurrence of four upright historians in all the material facts relative to the life of Christ and all his doctrines must form a satisfactory transmission of them to posterity. Little discrepancies

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in the Gospel-narratives, respecting immaterial circumstances, so far from affecting the credibility of the sacred historians, are proofs of their having written independently of each other: but discordance, even in little facts, must affect the hypothesis of Inspiration, since the Holy Spirit, in assisting the Evangelists to any particular circumstance in the life of Christ, could not instruct one to record that it happened before such a period, and another that it occurred afterward. Thus if Matthew and Luke both wrote under the same divine illumination, one could not report our Saviour's miracle performed on blind Bartimeus to have taken place "as he went out of Jericho," and the other that it happened "as Christ was come nigh to Jericho." It certainly makes no difference to our faith in the event, whether the miracle was worked at this or that season: but it is a question whether, if the infallible Spirit of God were present to the minds of the historians, this even trifling disagreement could have *possibly* occurred. Can the Deity be peculiarly present to aid the recollections of two authors narrating the same event, and allow one to be exact, and the other to be incorrect?

The author of 'Remarks' will say that, if 'the superintendance of the Spirit secured the Evangelists from *material* error, and suggested *every thing necessary* for the instruction of a Christian, the real end of Inspiration is answered; and that this is the proper rule of the extent and degree of it.' It will be allowed that the true object of such documents as the Gospels is accomplished, if material errors are prevented, and lessons necessary for the instruction of the Christian are communicated: but it may be asked, is any Inspiration necessary to produce this effect; and, if it be necessary, can we suppose the Spirit of God to aid the memories of the Evangelists to recollect that which they may have seen and heard, with different degrees of accuracy?

With divine interposition, more must be accomplished than the mere faculties of man can perform; and the errors to which he is liable must then be excluded. After all, do the Evangelists assert that they were inspired? Does any thing like this appear in St. Luke's preface; and do not divines embarrass themselves by maintaining it, as well as impose on the Deity works of supererogation; for one Gospel perfectly written in all its parts, under the influence of Inspiration, must have superseded the necessity of the rest?

Harmonies are liable to objecion, in the judgment of the author of 'Remarks,' as giving a propensity of forcing every thing in the Gospel history into an exact method, 'even those parts which were not *contrived* by the authors to

to fall into it.' We can never suppose that the Evangelists had any contrivance or idea of this kind: but, having alike undertaken to write the memoirs of our blessed Lord, we see no reasonable objection to their respective Gospels being subjected to the harmonizing process; nor against exhibiting the different narratives in parallel columns, so as to place their agreement and dissonance at once under the eye. How can 'an excessive use be made of this practice?' Can scripture critics and interpreters be too attentive in arranging and methodizing? Granting that the Evangelists were not scrupulous in observing chronological order, that there are some passages in their writings 'of which it is perfectly indifferent at what time and place they were said;' that each Evangelist had his own reasons for the mode and place of their insertion; that he introduced them 'as there occurred a fit opportunity in his own particular work, or with reference to his own particular view in writing;' yet it is allowable for the Biblical student who peruses these different accounts, to force them into as exact a method as they are capable of assuming. Should 'the Evangelists be considered as neither historians nor biographers,' (a strange position) still truth and religion have nothing to fear from the labours of the harmonizer.

The Remarker observes that he knows no work of classical antiquity, which bears so near a resemblance to the Gospels as Xenophon's *Memorabilia*, where the history is only a vehicle of the doctrines or discourses of the Grecian sage, and in which the exact order of time is not observed. Supposing, however, that four Memorabilia of Socrates, on nearly the same plan, but composed by different authors, had descended to us, should we abstain from comparing them together, or should we object to their being submitted to the most rigid harmonizing test? Why then insinuate any thing to the discredit of Gospel harmonizing? The reason here is obvious; because it will embarrass the Remarker's theory of Inspiration, by throwing more difficulties in its way than he can possibly remove. He attempts, however, to effect his object, by hinting that the *differences* are 'perhaps capable of being reconciled, even though the solution be not known to us,' and may depend on various readings: but this effort will not serve his purpose; for of what use to us are unknown solutions? Why, moreover, this *caution* in the use of Harmonies? Who demands an entire agreement in matters of inferior consequence, where it is not necessary? Not the harmonizer. He only endeavours to shew wherein the Evangelists agree and wherein they differ. —We shall dismiss this topic by observing, in the words of the author of the 'Remarks,' that 'it disturbs not our faith, if the sacred historians have been suffered to recollect, with some little

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little variation, the attendant circumstances of each fact, or to fall into a different manner of telling one and the same story.'

From the general subject of Gospel inspiration, we proceed to the particular case of St. Luke; and to consider whether he was a mere compiler, or wrote from some degree of personal knowlege. Against the former position, the Remarker argues that the word παρηκολουθηκώς, in Luke's preface, 'certainly means the being present with or accompanying a person or things;' and he adduces authorities for this acceptation of the term. Mr. Marsh, however, maintains in his 'Letters' that 'there is the strongest reason for believing that this expression, especially when taken with the context, implies the contrary;' and he quotes authorities adduced by Raphelius, to shew that παρακολουθεω, coupled with ακριβως, signifies *mente atque intelligentia consequi*, or must be taken in the sense 'of making diligent inquiries.' In the notes to the 2d edition of the Remarks, the author, though he seems to yield to the justness of Mr. Marsh's stricture, by not contending positively for rendering the words in Luke's preface '*having had an exact personal knowlege of all things*,' &c. yet maintains that this Evangelist, 'if not an eye-witness, at least stands in the next rank;' that he was an author of the same time and country, known to the Apostles, and certainly the associate of St. Paul; and therefore (the sentence concludes) 'he has a right to be considered as an original inspired author.' The premises do not warrant this conclusion. Luke's preface shews that many spurious accounts of the Life of Christ were circulated before he wrote; that he was qualified to give a correct account by deriving his information from the purest channels, viz. from those who had been eye-witnesses and ministers of the word, and by his having bestowed on the subject the most diligent examination. *Further this deponent saith not.*

Mr. Marsh's account of the origin of the three Gospels of St. Matthew, St. Mark, and St. Luke, is represented by the Remarker as tending to degrade them: but that this was not his intention every candid reader will allow. His object is to explain difficulties; and, if his hypothesis fails, it has the merit of great ingenuity. It must be remembered that our blessed Lord was born in Judea; that he employed no other language in his preaching than Hebrew, or, to speak more correctly, a dialect of the Hebrew; that his apostles were his countrymen; and in course that their accounts of their master must have been delivered in the language of Judea. Hence a two-fold question arises; How has it happened that all our authentic narratives of the life of Christ are conveyed in the Greek language? and how are we to account for the striking coincidence of expression which is apparent in the several

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veral relations of the Evangelists? Mr. M. is represented as stating that there existed a common Hebrew document; that this original document, before it received any additions, was translated into Greek; and that it afterward required some additions, &c. To this mode of explaining the origin of the Greek Gospels and their several particularities, the Remarker objects, not only as it makes the Evangelists to be 'the mere copiers of copyists,' the compilers from compilations from a farrago of Gospels of unknown authority, but as there is a total absence of antient testimony in its favour. He even accuses Mr. M. of 'a want of sincerity and correctness,' in quoting the Τῶν Δωδεκα Ευαγγελίον, without acquainting the reader that it is a spurious work; and the Ἀπομνημονεύματα τῶν Αποστολων, mentioned by Justin Martyr, without hinting that by this title Justin means the four Gospels.

Mr. M. complains in the Letters that his hypothesis has been misrepresented. His supposition is that 'a document drawn up from *communications made by the Apostles*, was used by St. Matthew, St. Mark, and St. Luke, as the basis of their Gospels,' and he asks how this makes the Evangelists "the copiers of copyists" and degrades them? He rests the theory itself on the numerous and manifold appearances in the verbal harmony of the first three Gospels; and though he denies that it requires historical evidence, he thinks that the general opinion of antiquity, and particularly the assertion of Origen that St. Matthew wrote his Gospel in Hebrew, may in part be adduced as direct testimony in its favour.

In answer to the charge of incorrectness, on the score of the Ευαγγελιον τῶν δωδεκα and the Ἀπομνημονεύματα τῶν Αποστολων, Mr. M. first accuses the Remarker of misapprehension, and then replies that he had repeatedly stated the first as an apocryphal writing; and that, as to the second work, the *Memoirs of the Apostles*, good reasons may be given for believing that 'they were not our four Gospels, but a single Gospel, which had much matter in common with the Gospels of St. Matthew, St. Mark, and St. Luke, but was not the same with any of them.' In confirmation of this position, the following passage is exhibited from Justin's quotation of the Ἀπομνημονεύματα, which does not exist either in sense or in substance in any of our four Gospels. He says in his Dialogue, speaking of the baptism of Christ, καταβαντος του Ιεσυ επι το ὑδωρ, και πυρ ανηφθη ἐν τω Ἰορδανη, και αναβαντος αυτου ἀπο του ὑδατος, ὡς περιστεραν το ἁγιον πνευμα ἐπιπτηναι ἐπ' αυτον εγραψαν οἱ αποστολοι.—Lardner suggests that the circumstance of *a fire being kindled in Jordan* is only a conclusion from those words in the Gospels, *and the heavens were opened:* but this is

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an inference which most readers will doubt; and the subsequent observations, in the notes of the Remarker, on the punctuation of the passage, together with his parallel passages from the Memoirs and Gospels, designed to shew their agreement, leave the evidence in favour of Mr. Marsh's opinion.

The Remarker proceeds with more apparent success, when he hints that Mr. Marsh's hypothesis was not consistent in itself; and when he shews, by a comparison of texts, that the strong language which he employs in its support is not fully justified: but it would carry us too far to enter into these details.

When, perhaps, readers reflect on the little difference between the two hypotheses, on which so much critical argument has been lavished; and that one disputant would account for the verbal harmony of the Greek Gospels, from their having been previously committed to *writing* in that language, while the other contends for the discourses of Christ having been preserved for a time by *oral tradition*; they may incline to think that the disagreement is not important enough to justify the fierce contention which it has provoked, and that the advocate for one statement can have no plea for cautioning theological students against the other. *

Mon.

Art. VII. *The Evidence for the Authenticity and divine Inspiration of the Apocalypse*, stated and vindicated from the Objections of the late Professor F. D. Michaelis; in Letters addressed to the Rev. Herbert Marsh, B. D. F.R.S. &c. 8vo. 3s. Hatchard.

The learning and critical sagacity displayed in this treatise will be creditable to the author in the mind of every reader, whatever may be the result of the argument. Indeed the Apocalypse has seldom been vindicated with a more patient research into evidence, or with a more strenuous display of the abilities belonging to an apologist; and we recommend the pages before us to the consideration of those who are inclined to reject this book from the canon of the N. T. While, however, we regret that we cannot give to this work the space to which it is intitled on the score of its merit as a well-written discussion; we must be honest enough to own that its reasoning has not been successful in removing our doubts respecting that very singular book, which the author venerates as the produce of Divine Inspiration. That such profound biblical scholars as Lardner and Michaelis should have entertained suspicions of its authen-

* Since the above article was written, we have heard a report that the *Remarks* are the production of Dr. Randolph, Bishop of Oxford.

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ticity, is some plea for scepticism on this head; and the highly mystical, and at present unintelligible, nature of the composition itself must remain a stumbling-block to sensible believers. The existence of such a writing as the Apocalypse, in a very early age of the Gospel, is fully proved by the testimony of the Fathers: but the multitude of spurious compositions, which infested the Church about that period, makes it necessary to pay more attention to the internal than to what is called the external evidence.

It is asserted by the present vindicator of the authenticity and divine inspiration of this book, that 'there is not one writer of the primitive church, no Father, no ecclesiastical author, who seems to have questioned it.' As far as quotations from a composition are testimonies of its authenticity, Irænæus, Hermas, Polycarp, Papias, Justin Martyr, &c. may be adduced in its favour: but in whatever manner these Fathers may have mentioned and quoted the Apocalypse, the conviction of the Primitive Church respecting its authenticity was not complete; or otherwise Eusebius, in the enumeration of the books composing the canon of Scripture, would not have so particularly specified it as a writing of doubtful authority. The very manner in which this ecclesiastical historian mentions the Apocalypse is not favorable to the writer before us in his unqualified position, 'that the authenticity of the book was *never* doubted by the Church, during the first century after it was published.' Eusebius's testimony is thus exhibited:

'He has distributed (says the author) into four classes all the books pretending to a place in the sacred canon of the New Testament.

'1. The Ομολογεμενοι Αναμφιλικτοι, books universally read, and admitted to be genuine.

'2. Αντιλεγομενοι Ομως Γνωριμοι Τοις Πολλοις, books objected to by some, yet acknowledged by the many, by the greater part of the Church.

'3. Νοθοι, spurious, or apocryphal books, whose authenticity, or divine inspiration, was denied by the Church, but which might be usefully read, as containing pious thoughts, and no bad doctrine.

'4. Books published by hereties, which no Father of the Church has deigned to support with his external evidence, and which have no support of internal evidence, being discordant from the apostolical writings, both as to matter and manner.

'Eusebius places the Apocalypse in the first, and also in the third class; but as it cannot belong to both, so in placing it in each of these classes, he adds, ει φανειη, "if it should so seem proper." It was to stand in one of these classes, when the question concerning its merits should be determined. Hence may be inferred, that the question was then so far settled in the mind of Eusebius, that it *must* belong either to the first or third class, and by no means to the second or fourth.'

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After so fair a statement of the enumeration in the Ecclesiastical History, we are not prepared for this observation: 'It appears then that, in the times of Eusebius, the Apocalypse had a place among the genuine undoubted books of sacred Scripture.' It does not hence appear that this was the case universally.

Had Eusebius only spoken of this book in the undecided manner above noticed, so as to give Christians their option of placing it, as they might seem inclined, either among authentic or among the spurious writings, (H. E. Lib. III. c. 25.) we should incline to believe from it that, on some particulars relative to this book, his own mind was not decided: but his subsequent declaration (H. E. Lib. VII. c. 25.) of his disbelief of its being the work of John the Apostle, with his opinion that from the style and composition it could not have proceeded from the same person who was the author of the Gospel of St. John, sufficiently attest the rank which he assigns to it. Eusebius concludes his long chapter *concerning the Revelation of John*, with cautioning his readers against supposing that he had made his objections to the barbarous style of the Revelation by way of derision; a proof that some respectable Christians in his time regarded it with no great veneration.

In proceeding to the discussion of the internal evidence, the author observes that 'the ancient objection made *by some before Dionysius*, "that the Apocalypse is unworthy of any sacred writer," is not now persisted in and deserves not a particular refutation.' Begging his pardon, however, we must remark that this is the very ground which a person of common sense would take in pleading for its rejection from the authentic canon of Scripture, whatever sturdy opponent he might find in the author of this pamphlet. Its extreme obscurity is allowed: but it is contended that, 'if we cannot yet understand it, it is our duty to deliver it to the studies of posterity,' who may make great use of it as a bulwark of the Christian faith.

The language and imagery of the Revelation are unlike any which are to be found in the composition of a very old man, such as St. John was when he is said to have penned it; and this fact, combined with its dissimilarity from the acknowleged writings of the Apostle, forms a strong objection, which its advocate thus endeavours to obviate:

'In perusing the Apocalypse I remark that the sentiments, the notions, the images presented in the books, are, in very few passages, those of the *writer*, (such I mean as had been digested in, and arose out of his *own* mind), but of that Holy Spirit, or *of those heavenly inhabitants*, who expressed them to him by symbols, or declared

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declared them by speech. The pen of John merely narrates, and frequently in the very words of an heavenly minister, "That which he sees and hears," he writes as he is commanded: (ch. i. 19.) but they are not his own ideas from which he writes: He relates simply and plainly, with little or no comment of his own, the heavenly visions which he has seen. And even in those parts of the book where we should most reasonably expect to meet with the proper sentiments of the writer, we perceive him teeming, (as, indeed, was natural), with his newly-acquired images. He uses such at the very outset of his work; even in the Epistolary Address, which is full of images exhibited to him in the visions. The same are again seen at the close of the book. And, indeed, it is difficult to find many passages wherein the writer has recourse to his own sentiments, his own previous store of imagery.'

On the subject of the variety of style and manner in this book, compared with those of the Gospel, it is hinted that, as '*the history of its first publication is unknown to us* [an unfortunate circumstance in the detail of its external evidence,] it *may* have been written originally in Hebrew, or St. John might have employed an amanuensis or corrector of his language, at one time and not at another.' In addition to these mere conjectures, it is added:

'The Gospel appears to have been written by St. John, after an interval of about thirty years from the events which he relates. At such a distance of time the mind is enabled to look back with calm composure, and to represent, with dignified serenity transactions which could not be narrated soon after they had happened, without warm and passionate expressions. It seems to be owing partly to this cause that the Evangelist is seen to relate in a cool tenor of style, in the Gospel, those sufferings of his beloved Lord which he had witnessed, and which if related by him immediately after the events had taken place, could not have been told otherwise than with commotion and indignation. But the Apocalypse was written by its author immediatley after he had seen the vision; the impressions on his mind had no time to cool; his expressions kept pace with his feelings, and his style became *more* vivid and glowing. The same clear rivulet which has been seen to flow calmy in its former course, becomes turbid and furious, when it meets with rocks, or, by other causes, is accelerated in its descent.'

We pretend not to say how far this figurative reasoning will avail, in defending the authenticity of a more figurative book.

A particular examination of the strange and uncouth pictures and images, pourtrayed in the visions of this writing, should form part of an inquiry into its internal evidence; for if it be almost impossible to affix to some of these any meaning, and if certain expressions, (viz. the *seven spirits of God*) are employed, to which no counterpart is found in any portion of authentic scripture, it is impossible to peruse this book without doubting its authenticity.

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We are concerned to observe that the last argument, which the present controversialist uses to prove that St. John was the author of the Apocalypse, is extremely weak. 'In chap. i. 13. he who is ordered to write the book beholds in the vision "one like unto the Son of Man." Now, who but an eye-witness of our Lord's person upon earth could pronounce from the *likeness* that it was *he?*' As well might this writer argue that Nebuchadnezzar was acquainted with the *Son of God*, because he remarked, on looking into the fiery furnace, that he saw four men, and that the form of the fourth was *like* the Son of God.

After a laboured dissertation, we are finally referred to the diligence of future inquirers, and to the actual accomplishment of the apocalyptic prophecies. Certainly, if these predictions are ever understood and accomplished, all doubts will be removed: but, in the mean time, it is admitted that all is now involved in thick darkness; and it seems therefore of little moment to Christians of the present day, whether they admit or reject this writing,—whether it be an authentic or a spurious composition.

Moy.

ART. VIII. *An Historical and Political View of the Disorganization of Europe:* wherein the Laws and Characters of Nations, and the maritime and the commercial System of Great Britain and other States, are vindicated againt the Imputations and revolutionary Proposals of M. Talleyrand and M. Hauterive, Secretaries of State to the French Republic. By Thomas Brooke Clarke, LL. D. Secretary for the Library, &c. to H. R. H. the Prince of Wales. 8vo. pp. 208. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

THAT the prominent features in French politics have been military conquest, and an ambitious lust of dominion, is a principle established by a long series of historic facts; and Dr. Clarke has properly appealed to this evidence, in order to fix on the French system those imputations of a disorganizing tendency, with which M. Hauterive labours to stigmatize Great Britain and other states. In his encomiums of Peter and Catharine of Russia, and of the Great Frederick of Prussia, he is not more animated, than in his condemnation of Louis XIV.; by whose wars of aggrandizement, surrounding powers were disturbed and plundered. It is certainly true that the first violator of the system established by the treaty of Westphalia in 1648 was France; and 'that by her immense acquisitions, she obtained a preponderance, which broke the mutual relations and dissipated the general harmony' established by this celebrated treaty. So far Dr. C. has refuted M. Hauterive: but we should have been more satisfied, if, instead of detailing transactions in remote Germanic wars, he had taken a view of

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the state of Europe immediately preceding the French Revolution, and had particularly noticed the unprincipled partition of Poland; an event more atrocious than any recorded act of Louis XIV.; and which, by annihilating a vast kingdom, at one stroke, more completely broke the mutual relations subsisting between the states of Europe, than any plunder with which France can be charged, previously to the revolutionary war. What a fatal precedent was this measure to France! Dr. C. should have weighed it in his political scales, even though it should have obliged him to lower the extravagant praise which he has lavished on the late Empress Catharine of Russia. After such a wanton stretch of power, could any of the high contracting parties in this treaty of Partition protest with a shadow of reason against the disorganizing violence of France, or against her blotting kingdoms from the map of the globe? How long will it be a source of lamentation, that the lawful sovereigns of Europe afforded her such an example!

With considerable ability, Dr. Clarke exposes M. Hauterive's contradictory assertions, developes the motives in which the French secretary's publication originated, and endeavours to counteract those 'advertisements for confusion and division' which it contains. Great Britain being the object of M. Hauterive's spleen and animosity, a considerable part of the work before us is employed in correcting his mis-statements and erroneous reasoning, and in unfolding the consequences which would result to Europe from the actual adoption of the French theory. Dr. C. ridicules that writer's proposition of a new public law of Europe, as intended 'to create rights to inflict wrongs;' and he enlarges on the general benefits of the maritime system, as at present understood and established. It is here observed that a conspiracy in Europe against Great Britain would be a conspiracy against itself; that it is this maritime power which has resisted the subjugation of the continental states; and that it is by commerce that the improvement of nations is promoted. The Doctor thus explains the manner in which trade was delivered from the degrading oppressions of the feudal system, and the comforts and blessings which soon resulted:

'Peter the monk pointed out to the Barons, these heroes by profession, the way to gain heaven on soldier-like terms. Thus inspired with an epidemical phrenzy, all the hosts of idle warriors throughout Europe went to conquer heaven in the Holy Land. These frantic crusades soon taught them that a supply of necessaries was wanting; in which they were attended by swarms of females of quality. Such pilgrims never thought, in the first paroxysms of this fashionable zeal, of hunger and illness: or they supposed that food and medicine would

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come down from heaven. They soon learned, however, that it was better to possess magazines than expect miracles. In order, therefore, to purchase supplies, little societies of tradesmen were emancipated for small sums of money, and hence the origin of their charters. During two hundred years, the phrenzy of the crusades and the extravagance of the barons continued to augment the privileges of towns and cities. Freed from oppression by these charters, the trading places soon grew up into opulence through commerce, and hence they were thought worthy of sending representatives to parliament. Thus commerce gave property, and out of property grew the right of the people to vote at elections and to sit in parliament. Previous to this important effect of commerce, the nobles and the military voted at the elections of knights of the shire, but the people never. This class of human beings, far from being considered as citizens previous to this time, were estimated as so many heads of cattle, or live stock upon the land. The fifth article of *Magna Charta*, which forbids "the waste of *men* or *things* on an estate," demonstrates in what class of comparative consideration they stood.

'The artificers and tradesmen of England, having thus gradually purchased freedom, and increased their opulence, were enabled to give larger sums to their lords; and hence the origin of long leases. By such important results from commerce, the merchant moving forward both in rank and wealth, felt a new stimulus which roused his industry and exertions. Thus commerce was extended, and the arts and luxury appeared. The high lords now began to feel more enjoyment in convenience, and the growing softness of personal indulgence, than in the rapine, revelry, and disorders of their dependants. The manufacturer and the tradesman, soon taught the baron that he could gratify his own appetites of vanity or voluptuousness, with what he had dissipated before on the noisy feasts of thousands. Thus the retainers, who had paraded with lance and javelin, the pride and terror of tumultuous fairs, gave way to the baron's self-love, which manifested itself in the splendour of domestic life, or the dazzle of dress. And now arms retired before frivolity. The baron being initiated in pomp and pleasure, and the merchant in the profits of commerce, luxury advanced, refinement followed, and industry kept pace. But while they went on together, the trader became the rival of the noble in opulence, and roused others to become his own rival in commerce. Hence rivalry in luxury, and rivalry in trade, multiplied and improved the arts; and the great, always more voluptuous, and always more expensive, exceeded their revenues, sold their domains to the merchant and mechanic, and ruined their fortunes. Thus commerce levelled the proud baron, freed kings from slavery, and people from oppression.'—

'Since the beginning of time knowledge has kept pace with wealth, extended with industry, and flourished with commerce. Such has been its progress since creation over the globe: it has thus pervaded Europe; always abandoning the poor or impoverished, and uniformly abiding and flourishing with the nations rich and commercial; but wherever there is poverty, there will be ignorance; where there is ignorance, there will be error; and where there are poverty, ignorance,

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and error, there will eternally be misfortunes and vice. Make the people happy, and they will be virtuous; let the great be virtuous, and they will be happy. This is the invincible shield against disorganization and revolution: and this shield is formed by commerce. It gives industry and promotes happiness among the people below; it punishes, by pulling down laziness and vice from their seats above, and by exalting services and virtue. Commerce effectually encourages, by rewarding industry with ease, happiness, and civil independence, which utterly destroy all moral abjection; and this is a great corner stone of civil virtue.'

As Dr. C. is an enthusiastic admirer of commerce, he contemplates with exulting satisfaction the trading prosperity of his own country, and predicts its growing strength and happiness for ages to come. He tells us moreover that '*we are prepared for war*, without one farthing of further increase of our taxes:'—we wish that the minister would confirm the truth of this statement.

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ART. IX. *Testacea Britannica*, or Natural History of British Shells, Marine, Land, and Fresh-water, including the most minute: systematically arranged and embellished with Figures. By George Montagu, F. L. S. 4to. pp. 606. and 16 Plates. 4l. 4s. coloured, or 2l. 2s. plain. Boards. White. 1803.

THE appearance of this very respectable volume, after the interval of only a single year from the publication of the author's Ornithological Dictionary *, is a most substantial testimony of his diligence and perseverance; and his adoption of a systematic delineation, in preference to the alphabetical arrangement, enables us to state with facility and precision, the extent and importance of his present undertaking.

At a period in which every department of Natural History has become an object of minute and philosophical investigation, it might be expected that the testaceous mollusca should be classed according to the characters of the living animals. Yet the most ingenious attempts to realize such an arrangement have hitherto failed; and the extreme difficulty of procuring the various species in the living state may, perhaps, prove an insuperable bar to the accomplishment of such a laudable design. Hence the methodical naturalist of the present day is compelled, like Linné himself, to acquiesce in that artificial distribution of shells, which is suggested by the varieties of their figure and structure. Mr. Montagu, who chiefly follows the Linnéan distinctions, is very careful to note the sup-

* See M. R. N. S. Vol. xl. p. 137.

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plementary genera and species included in his limited range of conchology, and has considerably augmented the valuable descriptive catalogues of Lister, Pennant, and Da Costa. Through the kind offices of the late indefatigable Mr. Boys of Sandwich, he was, moreover, enabled to make many additions to the list of microscopic shells, published by Mr. Walker in 1784.—A careful inspection of the whole work warrants our assent to the following statements, which may therefore be regarded as conveying our opinion of its *general* merits:

'The descriptions are as concise as possible, consistent with the necessity of giving a full and perfect idea of each species; and figures are given of such only as are entirely new, or have not appeared in any English work, except in such cases where it was thought requisite for the purpose of comparison. To which, in many instances, is added a short description of the animal inhabitant, a circumstance of no small importance in aid of discriminating some nearly allied species; though of no generic use in conchology. An attention to this alone, could have induced us to refer, in many instances, to Muller.

'The synonyms are drawn from some of the best authors, and most topographical writers omitted, except in a few cases, where the objects were in obscurity.

'Should the following sheets be deemed to possess any small share of merit, the public are indebted to the labours of a friend, who not only undertook the engraving, but in part also the colouring of the figures; executed from the objects themselves, they are a faithful representation, unadorned with the gaudy, high-coloured tints, which too often mislead.

'But for this assitance, so necessary in the smaller species, this work might never have seen the light; and it is only to be regretted, that it was found too large an undertaking for the hand that gave it existence, to figure all the shells that could have been wished.

'As this friend of science, however, may not undeservedly feel the shafts of the critical artist, it may be right to disarm them, by observing that the feminine hand of the engraver was self-taught, and claims no other merit in the execution, than what results from a desire to further science by a correct representation of the original drawings, taken by the same hand; both equally the works of amusement, not labour for emolument. Further, it was not originally intended that any but coloured figures should be given, and that only to a few copies, printed on superior paper; but overpowered by the desire of particular friends, plain impressions are suffered to go into the world with the inferior copies, though executed only for the purpose of colouring.

'To the naturalist therefore, and not to the artist, an appeal is made; if the representations are correct outlines of the objects, the design is accomplished; and we trust science will be considered as having reaped more advantage from such, than from highly finished engravings devoid of correctness and character.

'The species herafter described, with a few exceptions, are in our own cabinet, and have chiefly been collected from their natives places by ourselves, or by the hands of a few friends, whose conchological knowledge,

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knowledge, and scientific researches are too well known to be doubted: but under every individual, the authority of its being British will be found; and when any doubts are entertained, it is particularly specified.

'Aware that some shells have been given as English which never originated there, we have been cautious of admitting any thing, but upon the best authority; and where we have expressed doubt, we beg it may not be considered as arrogance, or contempt of the opinion of others, but a wish to develope truth: we are all liable to err, but those least, who search for nature where nature flows.

'Subjoined will be found a succinct description of the several animals inhabiting shells as recorded by Linnæus and others: and a sketch of the Mullerian arrangement of univalve shells, by their several inhabitants. To which is added a copious alphabetical as well as systematical index.'

Mr. Montagu's labours, however, are well deserving of a more particular analysis.

Agreeably to the plan proposed, the work consists of three great divisions; including, respectively, *Multivalve*, *Bivalve*, and *Univalve* shells. Of these, the first comprehends the genera *Chiton*, *Balanus*, *Lepas*, and *Pholas*. Among the seven species of Chiton enumerated and described, the *Septemvalvis* forms an article entirely new. The shell is half an inch in length; and it is found, though rarely, in Salcomb Bay. Following Dr. Pulteney, Mr. M. divides the Linnéan Lepas into two, namely, *Balanus*, denoting the sessile, and *Lepas*, the pedunculated species. Ten of the former are accurately described. Pulteney's *punctatus* is justly discriminated from the common *balanoïdes*. The *rugosus*, *ecstatus*, and *conchides*, likewise form additions to the Gmelinian enumeration. Of the *tintinnabulum*, we are told that 'it is the produce of warm climates, and brought to us on the bottoms of ships, where they are frequently seen adhering in clusters; and of course dead shells are sometimes found on our shores: but we doubt if they ever breed in this climate.'—As the different species of this genus are liable to varieties, and probably run into one another, Mr. Montagu recommends attention to the operculum as a discriminative mark.—To *Lepas anatifera* are added *anserifera scalpellum*; and the new and elegant *Sulcata*, found near Portland Island, adhering to *Gorgonia flabellum*.

To Pennant's four species of *Pholas*, is added the *Striatus*, a doubtful native, and, like its congeners, a borer. 'In a piece of timber now before us, (says Mr. M.) perforated by this and the *Teredo Navalis*, it is remarkable how effectually they destroy the planks of a ship by their conjoint actions; the *Pholas* perforates the wood across the grain, while the *Teredo* insinuates itself with the grain in all directions.'

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The Bivalve genera are *Mya*, *Solen*, *Tellina*, *Cardium*, *Mactra*, *Venus*, *Chama*, *Arca*, *Pecten*, *Ostrea*, *Anomia*, *Mytilus*, and *Pinna*.

The *Mya dubia* of Pennant, or *Pholas faba* of Pulteney, is here designed *Mya pholadia*; and several doubts are still suggested with regard to its true station in the arrangement.—Pennant's and Da Costa's *M. pictorum* is denominated *ovalis*, Dr. Pulteney having shewn that it is perfectly distinct from the *pictorum* of Linné. The latter is either rare, or very local in England. It was found by the author in the river Kennet, above Newbury, in Berkshire.—Walker's *Cardium striatum* is properly classed with this genus, and denominated *inæquivalvis*. The *suborbicularis*, *distorta*, and *bidentata* are new species; though the latter is inserted with some degree of hesitation as to its real genus. The specific list of British Myæ, then, according to Mr. Montagu, stands thus:—*pholadia*, *arenaria*, *truncata*, *margaritifera*, *ovalis*, *pictorum*, *inæquivalvis*, *suborbicularis*, *pubescens*, *prætenuis*, *distorta*, and *bidentata*.

Of the twelve species of *Solen*, *novacula*, *squamosus*, and *pinna* are non-descripts. The first resembles the *siliqua* in every thing but the hinge; 'being furnished with one strong blunt curved tooth in each valve at one end, destitute of lateral laminæ: these teeth turn contrarywise, and when closed, clasp or hook into each other.'—The *minutus* is noticed for the first time as British, Mr. M. having found it burrowed in hard lime-stone at Plymouth.—As Pennant's *cultellus* differs from that of Linné, the present author has followed Dr. Solander, and has named it *antiquatus*. He notices, at the same time, an important correction: 'Mr. *Pennant*, who first gave this species as a *British* shell, has erred with respect to the number of teeth, giving only a single tooth in each valve. DA COSTA, and Dr. PULTENEY have fallen into the same error. It should seem, from this circumstance, that the teeth are easily destroyed, and indeed we have found it to be the case, but by the assistance of a glass readily discover the fractured part. We have received it perfect from Looe in *Cornwall*; but more frequently with the loss of one or two teeth.'

Under *Tellina*, we find nineteen species, and several judicious alterations and additions.

Among seventeen species of *Cardium*, are three non-descripts, viz. *nodosum*, *elongatum*, and *arcuatum*. A careless observer would very readily confound the first with the young *echinatum*: but the latter is more convex, and presents sharper ribs, and more pointed and distinct tubercles. The *arcuatum* is thus described;

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'C. with a thin, fragile, semi-pellucid, orbicular, white shell, finely and regularly striated transversely in an arcuated manner, as if cut with an engraving tool, with a few irregular concentric furrows; not glossy: beak or *umbo* central, pointed at the apex, and turning to one side; hinge furnished with one primary tooth in each valve; laminated teeth remote: on the side of the middle tooth a sulcus or groove in which the connecting cartilage is fixed. Inside white, a little glossy, very concave; margin slightly crenated. Diameter not quite half an inch.

'This shell has somewhat the habit of the *Tellina divaricata* of *Linnæus*.

'We found this elegant species in *Falmouth* harbour, dredged up with sand for manure; but not common.'

The genus *Mactra* includes eleven species, two of which are non-descripts, namely, *triangularis* and *tenuis*. In this division, as in most of the others, various emendations and corrections of former conchologists are introduced: but our limits permit us not to pursue them in detail.

The species of *Donax* here particularized are, *trunculus*, *denticulata*, *complanata*, *plebeia*, *irus*, and *castanea*—the last a non-descript. The *irus*, which Pennant confounds with *Tellina Cornubiensis*, perforates the hardest lime-stone. Its animal, like most of the borers, is an *ascidia*.

Mr. Montagu's catalogue of species pertaining to *Venus* amounts to twenty-two; among which, *minima*, *subcordata*, *triangularis*, *spinifera*, and *perforans* are recognized for the first time.

Chama cor, an Hebridian shell, is now duly noticed. Under *Arca* are classed *pilosa*, (Pennant's *glycymeris*) *lactea*, *Noæ* (very rare) *minuta*, and *nucleus*.

The Linnéan *Ostrea*, according to Pennant and others, is split into two genera:—the first, *Pecten*, including those species which are eared, and have a small subtriangular cavity. The others retain their former generic appellation: but *edulis* is the only British kind in this collection, the *striata* being removed to *Anomia*. To the last named genus are assigned *ephippium*, *squamula*, *aculeata*, and *undulata*: the two latter from Gmelin.

Mytilus furnishes the author with fifteen species, including *præcisus* and *discrepans*, now characterized for the first time. The latter, in appearance, is so nearly allied to *discors*, that he once received a specimen of each from an able conchologist, for the same shell. 'The principal distinctions are, that this is very little convex, whereas the other is nearly as thick as it is broad; this is rounded, and broadest at the anterior side; the other is smallest on that side, and runs out to an obtuse point; it has only eight, or nine, clearly defined ribs, on the side next

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to the beak; whereas the other has double that number; which character is invariable; and this is never otherwise than of an uniform colour, without spots or markings of any kind. No author seems to have distinguished this species, although so essentially different from *M. discors.*'

The succeeding remark is also deserving of attention: 'Much caution is requisite, in determining the species of this genus, so similar to each other, and subject to so much individual variation by climate and other circumstances; which have already, we fear, been the occasion of multiplying the species beyond their natural bounds.'

Pinna pectinata, ingens, and *muricata* bring up the rear of the bivalve division. The account of the *ingens* is minute and curious. It is sometimes a foot in length. One of the largest weighed seventeen ounces, independently of its inhabitant.

Mr. Lightfoot, in 1786, described *Nautilus lacustris* as an article of British zoology; and Mr. Walker since added, with more zeal than accuracy, several microscopic species of the same genus to our indigenous catalogue. Mr. Montagu introduces to our acquaintance not fewer than sixteen.

The *bullata* and *voluta* are added to *Cypræa.* In regard to the furrow along the back of the *pediculus,* it is remarked that 'those who have described the sulcus as a character in the *British* specimens, have certainly confounded them with foreign shells; for in the thousands which we have examined from various parts of our coasts no such circumsance has ever occurred.' We are far from wishing to invalidate such respectable authority; yet we remember to have seen a few specimens of the sulcated variety, which were said to have been collected on the shores of the Frith of Forth, nearly opposite to Edinburgh.

The exposition of the genus *Bulla* is particularly interesting, and comprizes eighteen species; of which *haliotoidea, plumula, umbilicata,* and *diaphana* are non-descripts. Many recent observations have proved, contrary to the opinion of Linné, that the inhabitant of some of the species is not a limax. Several are distinguished by a testaceous gizzard, and the property of involving the shell in the animal.—The following, among other singular particulars, are related of *B. hydatis:*

'The animal inhabitant is a shapeless mass, destitute of either eyes or *tentacula*; the head, or forepart, has a transverse opening, which runs along the sides, and forms fin-like membranes, that expand on part of the under-side of the shell: the skin is warty, tough, and of a dusky brown colour. The gizzard, or stomach, is a very singular structure: it is small in proportion, and consists of three sub-oval, corneous

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corneous plates, held together at their edges by ligaments, and surrounded by a strong, cartilaginous, or muscular substance: it is of a sub-triangular shape, with the alimentary canal attached to its centre. The plates on the inside are well formed for comminuting its food; they are of a dark purplish brown, or chocolate colour, with a longitudinal ridge, and several transverse furrows on each; the upper parts reflect outward, and are bare of covering even when connected together, so that their structure is partly seen without opening the stomach: the lower part of the gizzard is convex and muscular.

'To a conchologist, perhaps, it would be difficult to describe the appearance of the corneous organs of digestion better than by saying they resemble so many *Chitons*.'

Under *Voluta* are ranked six species, including *catenata*, not hitherto described. Several additions and judicious corrections also occur under *Buccinum*. The number of species described is seventeen: and *cinctum* and *minimum* are introduced for the first time.—*Strombus* presents us only with *pes pelicani* and *costatus*.—Not fewer than one half of the *Murices*, viz. *purpureus*, *lineatis*, *muricatus*, *turricula*, *rufus*, *sinuosus*, *attenuatus*, *gracilis*, *septangularis*, and *tuberculatis*, are non-descripts.—Twelve species are assigned to *Trochus*. The *humidus*, if not a synonym of the *Nattaviensis* of Chemnitz, is new.

The numerous and elegant family of *Turbo* is distributed by Mr. Montagu into three sections; the first comprehending the marine species, the second those which are found on land and in fresh water, and the third those which have their spirals reversed. This division is rather commodious than logically accurate. Of the seventy-two species characterized by this discriminating naturalist, several are non-descripts, and many are introduced for the first time as inhabitants of this country. For the benefit of the conchological student, we extract the distinct account of reversed shells:

'We have thought it proper to make a separate division of the reversed shells of this genus, in order that they might be brought together the better for comparison; and perhaps it may not be improper in this place, to define what is really intended by this term.

'Nothing appears more confused and incomprehensible, than the various descriptions of different authors, concerning the spiral turns of a *heterostrophe* shell; some call it from right to left, others *vice versa*, from left to right.

'Every conchologist knows, that most convoluted shells turn one way, and that there are a few species which are *heteroclitical*, or invariably turn contrary to the usual manner: some indeed have doubted, whether this is a permanent character; there requires, however, no argument to prove it is so, to those who have taken the trouble to examine the common species of *heterostrophe* shells, which daily present themselves to our notice in our rural walks. Indeed, it is rather strange, that not one of these shells, whose nature is to have their spires

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spires turn in the more unusual manner, has (to our knowledge) ever been met with to vary from that formation; as such accidental deformities have been found in a few instances, amongst those which are usually termed dextrals, or have the more usual spiral turns, and have become *lusus heterostrophon* shells.

'In order therefore to explain, which way the turn of the spiral convolutions of a reversed shell takes, omitting the vague signification of turning to the right or left; we shall observe that the more common turn of shells is with the apparent motion of the sun, or as the index or hand of a clock moves.

'But in order to be more clearly understood, let us compare the spiral volutions of a shell to a common cork screw, and we shall find, that whether the mouth or *apex*, is placed upwards, the spires will turn from the upper to the lower end like a common screw, which is in the same direction as the index of a time-piece, and what is commonly understood by a dextral or right-handed screw. As a further definition, such shells have their apertnre on the right side, when examined with that end downward, and is in the direction of the sun's apparent motion.

'On the contrary, a reversed shell, when placed in a perpendicular position, has its spiral volutions in an opposite direction to the motion of the index of a watch, or a clock, or to a common screw; and in fact resembles what is usually termed a sinistral, or left-handed screw. These have their aperture on the left side, or opposite the left hand of the person holding the shell with the mouth downward; and the opening is opposite the sun's apparent motion.

'In order to determine whether a flat shell, whose volutions are laterally placed, is a reversed species, we have only to examine which way the volutions turn from the *apex* or centre towards the mouth; and if we find it contrary to the motion of the index of a watch, it is a *heterostrophe*, or reversed shell: and *vice versa*,

'In some of the more depressed species of *Helix*, or *Nautilus*, attention is requisite to be paid to the mouth, in order to determine which is really the upper side of the shell, for it is on that side the spiral turns are to be taken from the centre or *apex*: and in most instances this is to be determined by the oblique direction of the aperture to the under part, where the lip rarely extends so far as on the upper part. In fixed shells, such as *Serpula*, there is no difficulty, as the side which is *sessile* must be considered as the base, or under part. Thus in the *Serpula lucida* the fixed part is sometimes very small, and the mouth protends spirally upwards in a contrary direction to the sun; and therefore must be considered a reversed or *heterostrophe* shell, the same as if the volutions nearest the mouth had turned laterally upon the centre or fixed ones.

'This shell, indeed, is most frequently found with regular lateral volutions; and though subject to great variety with respect to contortions, it invariably turns the aperture one way.

'In some species of *Nautilus*, however, there can be no rule to ascertain whether it is dextral or sinistral; for when the aperture is exactly lateral, the lip collapses the body equally, and the sides of the shell similar, as in *N. Calcar*, it cannot be defined.

'In

'In others of that genus, as in *N. Bescarii* and *Beccarii perversus*, two shells, the principal distinction of which is the contrary turn of their volutions, it is easily determined, by the convexity of the upper side; and of course the aperture being placed somewhat beneath.'

Helix, which likewise presents us with various additions and much diligence of criticism, comprehends sixty-eight species, classed under the general designations of *ovate*, *sub-globose*, and *depressed*.—*Lacuna*, one of the non-descripts, is not limited to the habitations noticed by the author. We have seen several specimens (some nearly half an inch in length) from *Tiree*, a remote island of the Hebrides.—With respect to the amours of *H. aspersa*, we have these observations:

'So much has been already written by different authors on the loves of *Snails*, which requires more than common faith to credit, that we must beg to refer our curious readers to the more recent accounts of the actions of *Snails* in love, given in the first volume of the *Naturalist's Miscellany*; where the author very properly prepares the reader for the belief of such wonders, by saying, "I must request my readers to summon all their philosophical faith to receive the surprising particulars."

'That the hermaphroditical animal of the *Helix aspersa*, as well as *H. nemoralis*, (or at least some of them,) possess small testaceous *spiculi* at certain seasons, must be admitted; but that they are missile darts, we have much reason to doubt, though it is natural to suppose the animals are furnished with them, for the purpose of stimulating each other to love, because it is only at that season they are found to possess them. If such are ever discharged at each other, we have been extremely unfortunate in our observations, for in no one instance, could we ever find the dart penetrated; though at the time the animals are close, the point may irritate: but it is neither sufficiently strong, nor sharp pointed, to penetrate the tough skin with which these animals are furnished; and, indeed the extremely viscid secretion, with which they are so copiously provided, adheres so strongly to these *spiculi*, when wholly projected from the body, that they are for a time held by it. Perhaps we may be told hereafter, that this tough excretory fluid is used as a cord to regain these darts after they have been discharged: but such we should hold equally fabulous, with much of the accounts related by various authors.

'These celebrated love-darts are sub-pellucid-white, and very brittle, about a quarter of an inch, or three eighths in length, and somewhat triangular, like the blade of a small sword.'

Nerita and *Haliotis* have received no additions. Of thirteen species of *Patella*, the *bimaculata* occurs for the first time. One of this rare sort was found at *Falmouth*, and another near *Milton*, on the south coast of Devon.

Dentalium has supplied three non-descripts, namely, *gadus*, *trachea*, and *glabrum*.

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The Linnéan *Serpulæ* are divided into such as adhere to other bodies, and such as are free and detached; the latter constituting a new genus under the title of *vermiculum*. Among fifteen of the former kind, we have to notice, as non-descripts, *carinata*, *corrugata*, *heterostropha*, *minuta*, *reversa*, and *tubularia*. 'Nothing,' says Mr. Montagu, 'has puzzled the conchologist more than the four species of *Linnæan Serpulæ* under the denomination of *Vermicularis*, *intricata*, *triquetra*, and *contortuplicata*.' He also remarks: 'We have collected a vast quantity of these *Serpulæ*, single and grooped, angulated and cylindric, with all the intermediate gradations, which connect them so nearly, that were it not for the animals, we should have been induced to have considered them as one and the same species: we have, however, by the animals, more than by the shells, formed them into two species; namely, *vermicularis* and *triquetra*.'

The descriptions of most of the *Vermicula* are still imperfect. Sixteen are particularized; and *oblongum*, *perlucidum*, *urnæ*, and *squamosum*, for the first time.

As the article *Teredo navalis* must be interesting to many besides naturalists, we offer no apology for the subsequent extract:

'It has been erroneously imagined, that the animal perforates wood by means of its anterior valves; but there is no reason for ascribing such a property, because, their shape has been likened to an auger, when we find all the *Pholas*, the *Mytilus rugosus*, the *Donax Irus*, and many others perforate not only wood, but even the hardest lime-stone, without the assistance of their shells, a part impossible to effect it.

'It is observable the *Teredo* bores across the grain of the wood as seldom as possible; for after it has penetrated a little way, it turns, and continues with the grain, tolerably strait, until it meets with another shell, or perhaps a knot, which produces a flexure: its course then depends on the nature of the obstruction; if considerable, it makes a short turn back in form of a *syphon*, rather than continue any distance acros the grain.

'We had an opportunity of examining a great number of these shells in the *Dock-Yard* of *Plymouth*; where every means have been tried to prevent the destructive quality of these pernicious animals, which are now become naturalized to the climate, and have increased considerably, though supposed to be of oriental origin.

'The piles we examined had been recently taken up to be replaced with new; these, we were informed, had not been under water above four or five years, and though perfectly sound and solid oak, were greatly perforated *.

'It

'* The method now adopted to preserve the timbers necessarily used about the docks, is to cover that part which is continually under water,

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'It must be presumed, that the tube is lengthened as the animal's growth requires; and that it can extend the whole length of the perforation without quitting the tail; but that it cannot recede far, by reason of the increase of the anterior valves affixed to the head, and the taper shape of the tube. This part is rarely above three-quarters of an inch in diameter at the larger end, and a foot in length, in our climate; but exceeds that in the more southern parts, from whence it was brought into our harbours to the destruction of our ships, as Linnæus justly observes, *calamitas navium*.'

In compliance with the practice of his predecessors, rather than from his own conviction, Mr. Montagu has admitted *Sabella* into his arrangement, and has allotted to it the last place. Besides the *cirrata*, which corresponds to *Terebella cirrata* of Gmelin, he has introduced to our acquaintance the *arenaria*, *subcylindrica*, *setiformis*, *curta*, and *compressa*.

We now hasten to close this rapid sketch of the contents and character of the *Testacea Britannica*, with a few general remarks.

Though the work comprizes thirty-six genera, and nearly four hundred and seventy species, we are not without our suspicions that, in some instances, the latter have been needlessly multiplied; and that the systematic nomenclature has been occasionally tortured without an adequate cause. The author's personal observation appears to have been too much limited to the south of England; and many gleanings are yet left for the conchologist who shall make the circuit of our shores. To give additional popularity and interest to a performance like the present, we should have recommended compression of many of the characteristic descriptions, a reduction in the size of the paper and type, and more frequent notices of the living contents of several of the species of shells. In regard to the composition, it is, on the whole, less faulty than that of the Ornithological Dictionary: yet several of the sentences betray a singular contempt of neatness, and are encumbered by such epithets as *testaceological*, *quadrifurcated*, *perlaceous*, and *depauperated*. Errors of the press, and trespasses against the concord of noun and verb, are also not infrequent:—but, while we advert to these minor delinquencies, we are by no means blind to the genuine and important merits of the publication.

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water, with short, broad-headed nails, which in salt water, soon cover every part with a strong coating of rust, impenetrable to these animals: and we are assured this has been found to succeed better than sheathing with copper.'

Muir.

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ART. X. *Theological Institutes*, in Three Parts. By George Hill, D.D. F.R.S.E. Principal of St. Mary's College, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 444. 6s. Boards. Edinburgh, Bell and Co. London, Longman and Co.

THE first division of this work presents heads of lectures in divinity; the second, a view of the constitution of the church of Scotland; the third, counsels respecting the pastoral office. The whole affords a spacious field for critical disputation; and, were it possible, for *friendly* discussion: but alas! such seems to be the state of human nature, or the irritable spirit of *Christians*, that this desirable conduct is not attainable!—It appears to be one purpose of the volume to prove that Calvinism is the doctrine of both the British churches.

Part I. consists of five books under these titles:—'Evidences of the Christian religion;—General view of the Scripture system;—Opinions concerning the Son, the Spirit, and the manner of their being united with the Father;—Opinions concerning the nature, the extent, and the application of the remedy brought by the gospel;—Index of particular questions, arising out of opinions concerning the gospel remedy, and of many of the particular terms in theology.'—It may be concluded that only a brief and contracted view can be taken of these subjects in the course of 134 pages; yet, though merely a syllabus, the propositions and hints here advanced will doubtless prove useful, not solely to the lecturer, but also to awaken thoughts and ideas in the mind of the student or reader, which he may pursue to advantage. How far the author merits praise as a defender of established orthodoxy, we shall not minutely inquire: but we observe here, as in other instances respecting the Trinitarian controversy, that the Father is mentioned as Πηγη Θεοτητος, (fountain or source of Deity) &c. an expression which seems to indicate subordination in the Son and Spirit, and consequently is incongruous with that equality which is so directly maintained. Without entering farther into the disputable points which here arise in succession, and which are likely to remain still disputable, with whatever confidence any explications may be asserted, we satisfy ourselves with barely adding the brief remarks of the present author in the close of the chapters on predestination, &c;—where, after having informed us that 'there are in the English church, Doctrinal Calvinists, Universalists, and Arminians,' he proceeds to say;—'On this subject, as on the Trinity, it is not proper to state the controverted points to the people: and men of speculation should exercise mutual forbearance; should not form their opinion

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opinion of either system from the writings of those who oppose it; and should not think themselves obliged to defend every position of those writers whose general opinion they approve.

In the wide scope for debate or discussion which this primary partition of the volume affords, we take no other part than to lament those impieties and those atrocious crimes, which, as persons acquainted with ecclesiastical history too well know, have been occasioned by subtle distinctions and metaphysical discrimination;—impieties and crimes sufficient to testify that, whatever other title the principal actors might bear, they could have no claim to the sacred name or character of *Christians!*

Part II. gives a view of the constitution of the church of Scotland, distributed into seven sections; and here a short and cool survey is taken of subjects so often contested, viz.—'the connection between church and state; religious establishments; and religious toleration.' Dr. Hill favours them all;—though a steady advocate for presbytery, as sanctioned in his opinion by reason and scripture, he appears to admit that episcopacy and its attendants may be most suitable to the English church: but at the same time he hails the 'glorious revolution, which extended its influence to the connection between the church and the state.'—He adds, 'the law, both in England and Scotland, takes under its protection all places where Dissenters of any description assemble for worship; and Christians are understood to be accountable for their interpretation of Scripture, and their mode of worship, only to him who is Lord of conscience.'—However partial he may be to the form and discipline of that establishment with which he is directly connected, we find him acknowleging in the next chapter, which considers 'the general principles of Prebyterian government,' that no certain and positive directions are furnished in the Scripture as to the external constitution or model of a Christian church: but, instead of following one uniform course, the apostles accommodated their establishments, (for such, improperly enough, perhaps, they are termed,) to the local circumstances, qualifications, &c. of different kinds, which presented themselves; and to remarks of this nature he adds,—'This liberty in regard to the forms of church government, which seems to be warranted by all that we know of the practice of the apostles, is agreeable to the genius of Christianity, and is essential to its character as an universal religion.'

The five other sections in this division are employed on the following subjects;—'Manner in which ministers are admitted into the church of Scotland; Judicatories which compose its constitution; Distribution of power among those judicatories;

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catories; Objects of the judicial power of the church; Provision made by the state for the church of Scotland.'—These topics are represented in an easy manner, so as to appear to general readers fair, reasonable, and useful; and such in some respects they are, but they leave room for considerable argument and objection. We shall not renew the debate, which not many years ago employed several masterly pens, together with some of a different description.—After an account of the admission of ministers, Dr. Hill observes, with apparent satisfaction,—'In this manner does the constitution of the church of Scotland preserve the rights of the church, of the patron, and of the people; and from the union of the three, in the settlement of vacant parishes, there is every security which the nature of the case admits, that no minister shall enter into this church who is deficient in essential qualifications, and who may not hope by the blessing of God on his assiduous labours to render himself acceptable and useful to those over whom the Holy Ghost hath made him an overseer.'

It appears to us that the author exposes himself to some animadversion, when he speaks of Protestant churches as deriving, or thinking that they derive, from the example and directions of the apostles, a clear warrant to regard unsound doctrine as an object of the judicial power of the church; which might possibly be granted, could they undoubtedly prove that they were possessed of those miraculous powers and extraordinary gifts that were imparted, for wise reasons, to the very early Christians. He next, with seeming approbation, remarks that 'they (*i. e.* the church,) sometimes proceed to inflict the highest censures on those who are guilty of *heresy*:' but what this same heresy is, he does not so clearly and satisfactorily distinguish as might be desired; though he does indeed say that, 'as a legitimate object of church censure, it denotes, not the entertainment of a false opinion in the mind, but the publication of that opinion by discourse, or by writing, and farther must respect some fundamental and pernicious error.'—We incline to apprehend that the Scriptures include in the idea of heresy, a perversity or depravity of mind, in order to constitute its criminality. Unity of faith, the Doctor appears to regard as essential to the church of Christ, and therefore he censures those whom he calls Arminians, 'who, framing their creeds in the most ambiguous terms, represent fraternal charity as a sufficient bond of union amidst all possible diversity of theological opinions;' and he adds respecting the Scottish church, 'we are unwilling to charge with heresy those who readily subscribe to the great doctrines which are plainly taught in Scripture, although they do not admit the

justness of all the explications, distinctions, and reasonings, which have been employed in the statement of those doctrines. There is great respect due to the diversities of understanding and of education; to the freedom which every man of research claims, to a certain degree, as his right; even to the wanderings of a speculative mind: and the divine simplicity with which the truths, characteristical of the gospel, are there proposed, seems intended to leave room for those who "judge of themselves what is right," to differ in their mode of conceiving the truths, while they unite with cordiality in defending them.' This is certainly good, so far as it goes: but some readers will incline to wish that the author, having advanced to this point, had proceeded a little beyond it. Numbers there are, who would cordially unite in defending the cause of Christianity, but who could not, with satisfaction, subscribe all the dogmata, or return affirmative answers to all the questions, which establishments may peremptorily maintain.

The third division of the volume offers 'Counsels respecting the public and private duties of the pastoral office.' Here we can do little more than detail the titles of each section. 'Public prayer; Administration of the Sacraments; Lecturing; Doctrinal part of preaching; Subjects of preaching; Diligence in the composition of sermons; Imitation; Peculiarities of the preacher's genius; Personalities in sermons; Delivery; Private duties of the pastoral office; Character which becomes the ministers of the gospel.'—Dr. Hill speaks handsomely of the English establishment, but it may be fairly presumed that he gives a preference to that with which he is himself connected. Thus, on the subject of public prayer, he remarks:

'The church of Scotland, in adopting a Directory instead of a Liturgy, considers its ministers as men of understanding, of taste, and of sentiment, capable of thinking for themselves, who, without being confined to the repetition of a lesson that has been composed for them, may be permitted to exercise their talents, with a becoming dependance on Divine aid, in the sacred and important office of leading the devotions of Christian worshippers;—in committing to them this office, it not only warns the person who presides to maintain that grave, devout, and unaffected manner, the want of which is disgraceful to himself, and will probably disturb the devotions of others; but charges him also, as the minister of a reasonable service, in which the understandings and the hearts of the congregation are supposed to join, to employ the greatest care in arranging his thoughts and selecting his expressions, that every word which he utters may correspond to the sentiments which ought to pervade a Christian assembly.'

In the section on the sacraments, we had expected some short account of the Scotch method of attending and administering the Lord's supper; which, according to the relations made by occasional spectators, seems to include something pecu-

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liar: but Dr. Hill, having mentioned the danger which a change in the public services of religion creates, of unhinging the principles and disturbing the minds of those who do not discern the reasons of the change, only adds that 'Ministers act more wisely, and more conformably to the true spirit of the gospel, by adhering to the mode of administering the sacraments which prevails in their neighbourhood, and by employing their talents and exertions in rendering that mode subservient to the great end of cherishing good impressions, and promoting practical godliness.' However suitable this may be to the subject immediately proposed, yet, had such reasoning always prevailed, we might have been left at this day to the absurdities of transubstantiation, and to many arbitrary and painful impositions.

Which of the two British churches has on the whole the advantage, is a question which we will not undertake to decide: respecting temporal emoluments, that of England must be allowed a superiority; though the greater equality observable in Scotland has doubtless some recommendations. Dr. Hill does not fail to notice 'the protection of government, the countenance of authority, and that independence,' which are enjoyed by a national establishment. The practical reflections are impressive, encouraging, and likely to be useful. The language is in general clear, easy, and agreeable: though we have met with more Scotticisms, or words rather unusual to an English ear, than we should have expected from the learned and attentive professor: but for this a very reasonable allowance may be made.

Hi.

ART. XI. - *The Progress of Maritime Discovery*, from the earliest Period to the Close of the Eighteenth Century, forming an extensive System of Hydrography. By James Stanier Clarke, F.R.S. Domestic Chaplain to the Prince, and Vicar of Preston. 4to. pp. 1000. With Plates and Vignettes, and a separate Atlas. 3l. 8s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1803.

A RECENT occasion called us to remark on the interest and importance of researches into maritime discovery, and on the peculiar attractions of that study to the inhabitants of the British Islands; who have already acquired such eminent fame in this path of enterprize, and whose political ascendancy so obviously depends on their superiority in all that relates to naval pursuits. Our attention is now again required to a publication of a similar nature, but embracing a wider and indeed a formidably comprehensive range. The gentleman who has ventured on this almost boundless track is already known by several publications, which evince his attachment to marine affairs;

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fairs; and the personal knowlege which he has acquired, and the connections which he has formed, in his situation as a naval chaplain, give him advantages which an individual of his profession might not otherwise possess. Indeed, the large store of information here collected is creditable in a great degree to the industry of the author, and intitles him to the warm acknowlegements of a British public. After so much application, however, had been employed in amassing, we wish that due care had been taken to select and arrange; that the operation of digesting, and the arts of pruning and condensing, had not been entirely neglected; and that the utmost attention had been bestowed in preserving accuracy and correctness. From the omission of these duties, the volume wants unity of design, and uniformity of tenor; hence the first sections of the introduction consist almost entirely of irrelevant matter; and when we arrive at the work, we find it sometimes a history, sometimes an abridgement, and occasionally a mere republication of former tracts.

It is to be lamented that the author did not recollect that at no time was the adage more true than at the present, *μεγα βιβλιον, μεγα κακον.* The practice of giving a costly form to productions which have not correspondent merit is become a growing and a crying evil, which we feel ourselves obliged to notice; and which we conceive to be a practice as injurious to literature, as it is opposite to fair dealing. We the rather make this observation in an instance in which both the author and the publishers are above the suspicion of any improper motives; and we throw it out as a hint to others, in the hope that it will not be lost on them.—We must also complain of another indication of the haste with which the present work was compiled. Most of the voluminous notes which it contains, and which display a diligence of research that is truly commendable, are drawn up in a confused and obscure manner. While, however, duty compels us to pass these strictures on this performance as far as *finishing* is concerned, we render it no more than justice when we state that, in regard to materials, it lays claim to considerable merit; that if, as a literary production, it shuns criticism, as a repository of curious and valuable information it challenges attention and praise.

In the early part of the introduction, we meet with matter which in general, as we have already said, is but little more interesting than it is relevant. Having discussed the construction and capacity of Noah's ark, the author subjoins this remarkable account:

"About the middle of the seventeenth century, *Peter Janson*, a Dutch merchant, caused a ship to be built answering in its respective proportions to those of Noah's Ark. At first this *Ark* was looked upon as a fanatical vision of *Janson's*, who was by profession a *Meno-*

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nist; and whilst it was building, he and his Ship were made the sport of the seamen. But afterwards it was discovered, that Ships built in this manner were, in time of peace, beyond all others most commodious for Commerce, because they would hold a third part more, without requiring any addition of hands. *Hornius* also, in his History of the several Empires, gives an account of two ships built about the same time with that by *Janson*, after the model and proportions of the Ark, by *Peter Hans of Horne*. The attempt was at first ridiculed, but experience afterwards attested its success.'

The two latter sections of the introduction treat of the Greek, Carthaginian, and Roman navigation, and are particularly entertaining and instructive. Mr. Clarke thus describes the gradations of authority in the Grecian navy, and the management of their ships:

'In a Grecian fleet, the principal officers varied but little from the modern list; though naval and military duties were too much blended with each other. The *commander of the troops* appears to have preceded the *admiral*; of which rank, the Greeks had usually from one to three officers in a squadron: yet such was the prejudice, or jealousy of the times, that when an admiral had once discharged the important duties of that illustrious station, he was ever afterwards deemed by the *Spartans* incapable of occupying the same rank. His title as Commander of a fleet was *Dux præfectusque Classis*. To the *Admiral* succeeded the *captain* (*Navarchus*), and then followed a post of great honor and responsibility, *the pilot* (*Gubernator*), to whom the charge of the vessel and the discipline of its crew were assigned. Under the Pilot was appointed a sort of mate called *Proreus*, from his station at the prow; he had the keeping of stores for the ship's rigging, and was allowed to distribute places to the Rowers. Commanders of gallies, in addition to the above title of *Navarchus* or *captain*, were styled *Trierarchs*; and, when two were on board, each commanded for six months. This appellation of *Trierarchs* was also given to those cities, that in time of war were appointed to fit out gallies. The modern *Boatswain* is discovered in those duties which the *Keleustes* of the Greeks performed; he passed the word of command throughout the vessel, and also assisted in distributing the ship's allowance of provisions. The appointments of *Purser* and *Secretary* were always united, as they sometimes are at present; and the sprightly notes of the drum and fife, by which the labour of the capstan-bars is at present so much abated, was a delightful task assigned to the Grecian *Trieraules*, who stood before the mast, and cheered his weary shipmates with the exhilarating music of the Canaanites:

> 'Against the Mast the tuneful Orpheus stands,
> Plays to the weary'd Rowers, and commands
> The thought of toil away!' STATIUS, Theb. V. v. 343.

'Whilst on board, the hardships which the Grecians endured, must have been considerable, from the smallness of their vessel, and the badness of its accommodations. The Rowers had only a wooden bench to repose on, and even the situation of their officers differed but

but little from the rest of the crew; since it was objected against *Alcibiades*, as a mark of great effeminacy, that he was the first Grecian who had ordered his bed to be slung, in order to break the motion of the vessel. The Crew was divided into *rowers* (Remiges*), *mariners* (Nautæ), and the *soldiers* or *Marines*, who were styled *Classiarii*. A ship's complement rarely exceeded 200; the usual pay of their seamen was three *oboli* a day; and if we add the *fourth*, that was given by *Cyrus* at *Lysander*'s request, it would amount on the whole to nearly sixpence halfpenny. This however was sometimes raised to a *drachma*, or about ninepence, though some authors make it less; as when the Athenians fitted out a fleet against Sicily.'

In the description of the fatal struggle between Rome and Carthage, reason sanctions the bias which the author indicates in favour of the latter; and we applaud ourselves while we participate in his indignant feelings against the unprincipled but specious conquerors of the world. It cannot be denied, as Mr. Clarke states, that

'The triumph of Rome was THE TRIUMPH OF THE SWORD over the milder and more beneficent reign of commercial power. When *Carthage* fell, the naval and mercantile character was buried amidst its ruins, and the military Mariners of Rome came forward to subjugate and to delude mankind. What a field for reflection is here open to the historian: had *Carthage* triumphed, and the *Roman* power been subdued, how greatly would the progress of Nautical Science have been advanced; whilst the various nations of the globe, united by the golden chain of commerce, might have cultivated the arts of peace, and respected the influence of the trident. The discovery of the *Cape of Good Hope*, and of *America*, would have afforded at an earlier period an ample scope for the genius of ancient commerce, whose resources and influence, increased with the lapse of ages, would thus not only have meliorated the condition of mankind, but would also have prevented the monopoly of power, and the long night of slumber. The scenes which mark the establishment and decline of the Roman empire, could not then have disgraced the page of history, nor would the actions of a Caligula have insulted the dignity of human nature.—Yet it was otherwise ordained, and assuredly for wise purposes: the reign of Commerce was never suffered to extend to any long duration, during the continuance of *Paganism*. The fall of Tyre, the death of *Alexander*, and the flames of Carthage, are all memorable and awful instances of the truth of this remark. The SWORD, on the contrary, was allowed to remain as a scourge; and the triumph of the *Roman* Republic prepared the devastations of this Scourge, in the venal cruelty of *Pretorian* despotism; in a slavery both of mind and body by Mahomet; in feudal tyranny and darkness; in the tilts and bloody tournaments of chivalry, and in its horrid offspring, an appeal for justice to the sanguinary combat.'

* These were again subdivided into the lower rank called *Thalamitæ*, the middle *Zugitæ*, and the uppermost *Thranitæ*. Thucydides adds that the latter were paid the best, because they worked an heavier oar.'

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History records that the empire and commerce of Carthage had experienced a very narrow escape, previously to its struggles with the invincible Romans.

'It was the intention of *Alexander*, had he lived, according to some memoranda found on his tablets, to have entirely destroyed the commerce of a nation so intimately connected with the *Tyrians*; and the magnitude of the design was worthy of the son of Philip. A thousand gallies, on the return of the Macedonian monarch, would have sailed from *Alexandria* throughout the Mediterranean; nor would the subjugation of *Carthage* have been deemed complete, until the whole of the adjacent coasts, both of Africa and Spain, had acknowledged *Alexander* as their sovereign. A broad and regular road for the convenience of commerce, was to have extended along the conquered line of coast, to *Ceuta* and *Tangier*; whilst the establishment of Arsenals, Havens, and Dock-yards, at proper intervals, would have displayed the naval supremacy of Macedonia. These designs of Alexander were in part suspected by the *Carthaginians*, who accordingly employed the address of *Hamilcar* to avert the impending storm: but the report of their ambassador served only to confirm their apprehensions. On his arrival in Egypt, *Hamilcar* beheld with astonishment the rising metropolis of eastern commerce: the alarm was quickly conveyed to *Carthage*; and the trembling messenger, who bore this unwelcome intelligence, was sacrificed to the pusillanimous agitation of an ungovernable and ferocious democracy.'

It has been observed by those who are conversant with the history of the middle ages, that in those times mercantile individuals occasionally appeared, who far exceeded in wealth any persons of the same class in more modern days, the boasted period of the reign of commerce; and the history of the house of Medici, with the account which we here subjoin, as well as several others, fully substantiates the assertion.

'Charles the seventh, having resolved to regain Normandy, if possible, from Henry the sixth; Jacques Couer, intendant general of the French finances, and who at the same time, as appears, was the most celebrated merchant, not only of France, which indeed had very few merchants in those times, but of all Europe; became the leading instrument of that great revolution in Normandy: and though he supplied King Charles with an army, and with several millions of money, he yet had considerable wealth remaining. Couer was such a patron of commerce, that even whilst he held this high station under the crown, he had a great many large ships trading to the Levant, to Egypt, and Barbary; whence he imported gold and silver stuffs, silks of all kinds, and furs: which merchandise he sold by his factors, clerks, and agents, at the Hotel Royal; in all the principal cities of France; and in foreign courts: where the people greatly admiring them, they were purchased at high prices. He employed three or four hundred commissaries or factors; and gained more in one year than all the merchants of the kingdom together.'

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We find the causes of the tardy appearance of the English, in the field of maritime discovery, related in the following extract:

'Hakluyt informs us, that towards the close of the fourteenth century, an English ship from Newcastle of 200 tons burden, on her voyage up the Baltic Sea towards Prussia, was captured by some ships belonging to Wismer, and Rostock. This circumstance is thus quaintly noticed, in the state paper drawn up as a pacific agreement between Henry the fourth. and the cities of Lubec, Bremen, Hamburg, Sund, and Gripeswold: "About the feast of Easter in the yeere of our Lord 1394, Henry Van Pomeren, Godekin Michael, Clays Sheld, Hans Howfoote, Peter Howfoote, Clays Boniface, Rainbek, and many others; with them of Wismer and of Rostok; being of the societie of the Hans, tooke by maine force a ship of Newcastle upon Tine, called GODEZERE, sailing upon the sea towards Prussia, being of the burthen of two hundred tunnes, and belonging unto Roger de Thorneton, Robert Gabiford, John Paulin, and Thomas de Chester: which ship, together with the furniture thereof, amounteth unto the value of foure hundred pounds: also the woollen cloth, the red wine, the golde, and the summes of money contained in the said ship, amounted unto the value of 200 marks of English money: moreover they unjustly slew John Patanson, and John Russel, in the surprising of the shippe and goods aforesaide, and there they imprisoned the sayde parties taken, and, to their utter undoing, detayned them in prison for the space of three whole yeeres." The ship's cargo was worth about one thousand pounds of our present money.

'This maritime state paper tends to illustrate the naval character of Great Britain during the reign of Richard the second; and clearly proves that its enterprising spirit struggled with a most powerful obstacle, in the domineering supremacy of the Hans-Towns. This alone was sufficient to repress whatever the glowing mind of our mariners might have attempted, or the industry of our merchants might have explored; and certainly had a considerable influence in restraining the genius of our countrymen from taking an early lead in the progress of maritime discovery: ships that sailed from the principal commercial marts in the kingdom were plundered without remorse, and their crews murdered. King Henry cites no less than twenty-eight instances in his treaty of pacification: but I shall only add the following, to the one already given: "Item, in the yeere of our Lorde 1402, certaine of the Hans, of Rostok, and of Wismer, tooke upon the coast of England neere unto Plimmouth, a certaine barge called the Michael of Yarmouth (whereof Hugh ap Fen was the owner, and Robert Rigweys the master), laden with bay salt, to the quantitie of 130 wayes, and with a thousand canvasse clothes of Britaine, and doe as yet detaine the saide goods in their possession; the saide Hugh being endamaged, by the losse of his ship, and of his goods aforesaid 800 nobles; and the foresaid master and the mariners loosing, in regard of their wages, *canvas, and armour*, 200 nobles." Owing to these depredations which were encouraged by the Hans Towns; to

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the piracies and cruel conduct of the seamen of the Cinque Ports; and to the prevailing dislike for merchant strangers, who were alone supported by the favour of those in power; England was later than the kingdoms both of Portugal and Spain, in renewing the progress of maritime discovery: yet still, even before this period, she had formed a most respectable naval force.' *

Even as early, however, as the year 1315, the Monk of Malmesbury says, "English ships visit every coast, and *English sailors excel all others both in the arts of navigation, and in fighting.*"

'At the beginning of the fifteenth century, the commerce of England was so much increased; that in 1413 several merchant ships sailed from London to the western parts of Morocco, laden with wool, and other articles, to the value of twenty-four thousand pounds; and in 1481, two Englishmen, under the auspices of Edward the fourth, and the Duke of Medina Sidonia, undertook a trading voyage to those parts of the coasts of Africa, which had then been lately re-discovered by the Portuguese. During this century the English, by studying the construction of the Venetian and Genoese carracks, made considerable improvements in their naval architecture; and though their attempts in this science were probably but few, the persons who thus exerted their abilities were treated with a marked respect. Kennedy bishop of St. Andrew's is celebrated for constructing a vessel of uncommon magnitude, called the *Bishop's-Berge*; and John Tavernier of Hull was pointedly distinguished by Henry the sixth, for constructing a ship as large as a great carrack—*navem adeo magnam sicut magnam carrakam, seu majorem,* says Rymer.—The king ordered it to be called, on account of its superior dimensions, *the Grace Dieu Carrack*; and licensed it (1449) to carry merchandise from the ports of London, Southampton, Hull, and Sandwich, belonging either to English or foreign merchants, and freely to export it through the Straits of Morocco (Gibraltar) to Italy.'—

'When the Portuguese renewed the progress of maritime discovery, and at length attained the gratification of commercial hope, the discovery of the Cape; all European intercourse with India had nearly centred in the republic of Venice. Denina, in his Revolutions of Italy, translated by the Abbe Jardin, affirms, that Venice was at this time superior, in naval power, to all the commercial states that appeared in the Mediterranean: about the year 1420, this republic supported three thousand merchant ships, on board of which were seventeen thousand seamen: she employed also three hundred sail of superior force, manned by eight thousand seamen; and had also forty-five carracks with eleven thousand men to navigate them: her public and private arsenals at this time employed sixteen thousand carpenters. The expences requisite to fit out a squadron for discovery, and to have continued its progress, must have been very heavy to any kingdom, and almost ruin to individuals, in an age when the interest

* See farther on this subject Robertson's Charles V. vol. i. p. 406.

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of money was at twenty *per cent.* and upwards: even over this resource, Venice had a commanding influence by the first establishment of a bank in Europe about the year 1157: the period of the commercial ascendency of the Italian states, during which the interest of money continued most exorbitant, extended from the close of the eleventh century to the beginning of the sixteenth.'

Denina's own words with respect to the Venetians are; "*Erano perfanti venuti in riputazione di tanto potere, che forse non si sarebbe creduto giuoco disuguale, se tutte le altre potenze marittime di cristianita naviganti per il Mediterraneo, Catalani, Provenzali, Genovesi, Toscani, Napolitani, e Anconitani, si fossero collegate insieme per contrastar a quella republica il dominio del mare, e la superiorità del commerzio.*" *

Mr. Clarke next enters on the details which teach us the antient glories of Portugal, and the obligations which the world owes to that minor state. It was her favoured lot to be ruled by able and benignant sovereigns, almost without interruption from the Conde Henry, the founder of her power, and even of her political existence, to Emanuel I.; under whose auspices the passage by the Cape to India was ascertained. Prince Henry, youngest son of John I. king of Portugal, by Philippa daughter of John of Gaunt, whom his father afterward created Duke of Viseo, is one of the most remarkable characters in history; and scarcely can an individual be found in its whole compass who rose more above the level of his age. At a time when warlike feats alone called forth praise, he forsook the military career in which he had distinguished himself, retired from court, and fixed his residence at Sagres; whence he could behold that vast ocean, which he so ardently longed to render better known to mankind; and in which sequestered place he could devote all his time and thoughts to the promotion of maritime discoveries. He had to combat the ruling passion, the prejudices, and the terrors of the age; intrigues arising from jealousy in his own country; and foreign obstacles proceeding from the hostility of the Venetians, and their Moorish agents, to all attempts at changing the antient channels of commerce. Under such an opposition, any other man must have yielded; and though this Prince's firmness was of the first order, though his passion for his favourite pursuits was not to be diverted, yet had he not been the son of a king,—and had he not, as grand master of the order of Christ, interested religion and its supreme head, the Pope, in his cause,—he never could have effected his designs, and laid the foundation of the grand discovery of a passage by the Cape to India. He had embraced every opportunity of

* Denina, Revoluzioni d'Italia, vol. iii. p. 372.

conversing

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conversing with intelligent Moors, had sought every species of information which could assist his views, and all skilful and enterprizing navigators were kindly received and patronized by him. He founded a school at Sagres, intended to form youth for the service, where all the advantages of which the age would allow were furnished. Finally, by his undaunted perseverance, by his unremitting exertions, by the great credit which he possessed, and by the vast wealth of which he had the disposal, he overcame all the obstacles which ignorance, envy, and fear had created; opened to his countrymen the trade of the gold coast; made them familiar with the Western shores of Africa, as far at least as Rio Grande; and was the cause of the discoveries of the Madeiras, the Canaries, the Cape Verd Islands, and the Azores. What was of most consequence, he had dispelled the prejudices against farther discovery and the aversion to maritime enterprize; nay, he even brought it as it were into vogue, and enlisted the superstition and the avarice of the times on its side. The first discovery made under his auspices was that of Puerto Santo, one of the Madeiras, which took place in 1418; and the last expedition, which he lived to see fitted out, set sail, it is conjectured, in 1462. What modern princely character can produce a title to the veneration of mankind, equal to that of Henry Duke of Viseo?

The degree of terror, with which the enterprizes first proposed by the Duke of Viseo would be viewed, may be collected from the following passage:

'Africa, from time immemorial, has been the land of wonder or fairy illusion; and though the industry of the eighteenth century may have removed many of the plausible theories that darkened the beginning of the fifteenth, we still have gained little more than a knowledge of its coasts. The philosophic ideas of Cicero, who collected whatever had been approved by the antients, were now become the errors of the vulgar; the arguments that convinced the reason of Pliny, may be allowed to have possessed some weight on the minds of Portuguese seamen: they believed, therefore, that the middle regions of the earth, in the torrid zone, teemed with scorching vapours; and that the unexplored southern continent of Africa, after extending in breadth towards the west, diverged with an unbroken sweep to the east; and having joined the continent of Asia to the eastward of the Golden Chersonese, the peninsula of Malacca, was not surrounded by sea, but stretched in breadth to the South Pole.'

Elsewhere the author takes notice that

'Though a prince, and one of the most illustrious, *Henry* was obliged to pay the heavy tribute which the malignity of human nature seldom fails to exact from those who attempt to confer important benefits on mankind.—The Systematic Philosophers were alarmed, lest their favourite, and long established theories, should be perverted

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by the acquisition of real knowledge, which a continuation of the Portuguese discoveries would inevitably produce. The Military beheld with impatience the increase of fame that was obtained by a profession, they had always considered as inferior to their own. The Nobility of Portugal dreaded the opening of a source of wealth, whose influx, as it tended to raise the mercantile character, would proportionably equalize the ascendancy of rank, and check the rapacious sway of territorial possession. A numerous party was moreover formed of the Indolent and Splenetic, who invariably oppose whatever seems to reproach their own supineness, or the perverted talents of a morbid disposition. Such were the leaders of a powerful cabal, that had been long forming against the noblest efforts of the human mind: their sentiments assumed a plausible and specious guise: "it was presumption to search for a passage to the southern extremity of Africa, since the wisest of the antient geographers had pronounced it to be impracticable. Philosophy had long proved, that even if such a Cape existed, the seas beyond it could not be navigable: what stubborn obstinacy then to persist contrary to such unanswerable arguments? what dangers would the Portuguese be exposed to! who, if they succeeded in passing Bojadore, would probably be changed into *Blacks*, and retain to the last a mark of disgrace for their temerity. Preceding princes had sought a nobler object in the field of military glory; nor had wasted the revenue in search of barren countries, and sandy deserts, never intended to be explored. The lives of many valuable subjects were thus sacrificed for precarious and uncertain advantages; and the bravest of the Portuguese would be lost to their country, in attempting to pass the desolate cape of *Bojadore*. If land was wanting to the increased population of Portugal, they tauntingly reminded the king of many tracts that were yet uncultivated: they represented the number of widows and orphans, who by these voyages would be reduced to distress, yet at the same time cherished the military ardour of the monarch, by a view of the conquests that were neglected in Africa, and the trophies that might be gained from the Moors. The sycophants of the court closed the varied tissue of malignancy, exclaiming, how much it was to be lamented, that the Prince would not imitate the prudence of his father, and be content with following the footsteps of such illustrious ancestors."

We discover a simplicity and an interest in the older translations of the accounts of the voyages of the early Portuguese, which we think fully warrant the preference given to them by the present author.

Mr. Clarke urges the convenience that would arise from more determinate divisions of the ocean, and adds;

'After much conversation on this subject with one of the first hydrographers of the present age, Mr. *Arrowsmith*, whose liberality is only equalled by his information, I have ventured to offer the following *Divisions of the Ocean* to the attention of nautical men. 1. The *North Atlantic*, extending from the equator to *Cape Farewell* on the coast

coast of *Greenland* in 60° north latitude. 2. *South Atlantic*, from the equator to an imaginary line drawn from the *Cape of Good Hope* to *Cape Horn*. 3. *Indian Ocean*, bounded to the south by a line carried from the *Cape of Good Hope* to the south-west point of *New Holland*. 4. *The North Pacific*, flowing from the equator to *Cape Prince of Wales* in the latitude of 66° north. 5. *South Pacific*, from the equator to an imaginary line stretched from the south-eastern point of *Van Diemen's Land*, to the southern cape of *New Zealand*, and continued thence to *Cape Horn*. The remaining portions of the Ocean flowing round the northern, and southern Poles, to be called the *North*, and *South Polar Seas*.'

This volume comes down no lower than the close of the 15th century.

The Appendix, among other papers, contains several very valuable tracts which have before appeared in print: but we are of opinion that, if such a collection be proper, it had better have been made separately from the work before us.—Some well executed charts by Arrowsmith, and several striking plates and vignettes, enhance the value of this interesting performance.

Jo.

Art. XII. *Fables: consisting of select Parts from Dante, Berni, Chaucer, and Ariosto.* Imitated in English Heroic Verse, by Richard Wharton, Esq. M.P. 8vo. pp. 142. Payne and Mackinlay. 1804.

The passages which Mr. Wharton has selected for the exercise of his imitative talents are, the *Entrance of Hell*, and the *Story of Ugolino*, from Dante; the *Castle of Alcripa*, and the *Garden of Medusa*, from Berni's *Orlando Inamorato*; the *Franklein's Tale*, from Chaucer; and the *Stories of Caligorante and Orillo*, and of *Angelica and Medoro*, from Ariosto.

With respect to the Italian pieces, it will readily occur to the classical scholar, that no imitation of them in modern English, however faithful or elegant, can truly exhibit those charms which depend on the language alone. That language, too, we are accustomed to associate with the wild and obsolete machinery of the middle ages, with knights and tournaments, with demons and incantations. Hence the native strains of Tasso or Ariosto affect us with genuine or at least delusive pleasure, while we peruse the best translations of them only, perhaps, without wearisomeness. To these causes we would ascribe the diminution of interest with which we glanced at the imitations before us. Mr. Wharton is more unfortunate in the choice of his subjects than in the execution of his design; for it cannot be denied that he frequently conveys the sentiments of his author with much spirit, and in the true language of

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English poetry. The dark painting of Dante, for example, is at once recognized in these lines;

" Through Me you pass to Sorrow's dark domain;
" Through Me, to regions of eternal pain;
" Through Me, where sharp remorse avails no more,
" And Souls for ever lost their crimes deplore.
" From Justice did I spring: the Power above
" In Wisdom gave me birth, and gracious Love.
" I was, before aught was, save God alone;
" I shall be, till the lapse of Time be done,
" A Barrier to this House of Guilt assign'd.
" Ye, who once pass within leave every Hope behind!"
' High o'er a gate in dusky colouring spread
My wondering eyes this dire inscription read.
" Guardian!" I cried, " yon mystic lines I see—
" Say, does the dreadful menace point at me?"
Then thus, in warning voice, the Poet said—
" Far hence be all that can the mind degrade,
" Far hence be idle fears! the promis'd *path*
" At length you tread, and view the realms of *Death*;
" Where dwell the mournful shades that Sin has driv'n
" From blissful visions in the blaze of Heav'n."
He ceas'd; and as my trembling hand he took
Celestial comfort mantled in his look;
Nor stay'd, till from the brink of Hell he shew'd
The secret horrors of that dark abode.
' There groans and sighs and shrieks of loud affright
Resounded through the drear and starless night,
That I, not harden'd yet to scenes of woe,
Wept at the fearful doom of those below.
There jarring sounds of each discordant tongue,
Of Grief, Despair, Revenge, and Horror rung:
The wailing that from hopeless Anguish flows,
The burst of Hate, and self-inflicted blows,
Through the wide confines in confusion hurl'd
With viewless tempest shook the nether world.
As the light sands, when stormy winds arise,
Whirl o'er the globe and darken all the skies.'

A spirited description of an opposite complexion occurs at p. 54.

' In that fair garden pleasure breath'd around,
With laughing flowers and cheerful verdure crown'd;
Bliss, that celestial virtue might destroy,
And melt ev'n Wisdom to voluptuous joy.
But he, forewarn'd, before his visage *held*
Th' insidious splendor of the glassy *shield*,
Medusa's fatal glances to repel
And on herself to turn the potent spell;
Nor ever from the pathway look'd aside,
But onward to the golden center hied,

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Where, on the trunk reclin'd, the guardian dame
Rais'd her dread eyes, and met the mirror frame.
But not as erst appear'd that magic face
With roseate beauties crown'd and angel grace;
The guileful glass deform'd each feature fair
And twin'd with snakes her hyacinthine hair;
That, panic struck, no more she thought to guard
The treasures trusted to her powerful ward,
But shrinking from th' invulnerable knight
To distant regions sped her hasty flight.
Then, when her sounding wings Prasildo heard,
Nor more the perils of her aspect fear'd,
He dropp'd his Shield; and in the conquer'd charms
View'd the sure passport to Tisbina's arms.
Quick severing with his falchion from the stem
One spreading branch, that burnt with many a gem,
He took the forward path, and sought the gate
Where Wealth with her pernicious courtiers sate.
'Of Loadstone was the pile: around it plied
Deep Fraud and Toil, th' approaching step to guide:
For many tread the path of tempting gold,
But none the stubborn portal can unfold,
Till Fame before him with resistless *breath*
Burst the firm bolts, and clear th' obstructed *path*.
But open flew the gates with hideous din
What time Prasildo broke the spell within;
And when, low bending to the gorgeous throne,
He offer'd half the spoil his shield had won,
With greedy hand the Port'ress caught the prey,
And pointed out the road, and sped him on his way.'

The more we feel disposed to commend the general merits of these anglicized Fables, the more we regret the too frequent recurrence of false rhymes, such as *death* and *breathe*, *death* and *path*, *breath* and *path*, *held* and *shield*, *sins* and *screens*, *near* and *fare*, *head* and *deed*, *breed* and *sped*, &c. The following lines are harsh and hobbling:

'Yet, if what I may tell you shall give birth.'
'For ev'n at that same time this rite arose.'
'And Aquilant helm, scull, and body clove.'

A few others we might quote as prosaic: but we are by no means anxious to unveil every blemish which a strict examination might detect in such a respectable performance.

Muir.

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ART. XIII. *Amadis de Gaul*; a Poem in Three Books; freely translated from the First Part of the French Version of Nicolas de Heberay, Sieur des Essars; with Notes: by William Stewart Rose, Esq. Crown 8vo. pp. 220. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1803.

THE French version of Amadis de Gaul, executed in the reign of Francis I. by Herberay, (not *Heberay*, as erroneously printed in the title of this volume) is one of those literary curiosities which have become valuable from their scarcity. Mr. Rose, therefore, would probably have rendered a more acceptable service to the learned world than he has now performed, had he edited and commented on the original, and translated only a few of the most striking passages with all the fidelity which is compatible with the difference of idiom. The first three books, so far as they regard the conduct of the story, are perhaps the least exceptionable of this antiquated romance; yet, when reduced into the modish form of regular English verse, the result must appear somewhat motley and incongruous. The occasional introduction of extraneous ornament, the suppression of some offensive passages, a few alterations in the arrangement, and the hackneyed expedient of interlarding the narrative with obsolete phraseology, may palliate the improbability of the incidents, the extravagance of the machinery, and other defects inherent in the texture of the fable: but they cannot obliterate intrinsic deformity, nor reconcile a reader of modern taste and sentiments to absurdity and dulness.

With the exception of a want of interest, which is not imputable to the translator, but to his subject, the present poem has claims on our favourable notice. The versification is in general characterized by ease and elegance; and a few passages would not discredit a poet of considerable rank. We shall quote only two:

'Scarce* had the youth dismiss'd the conquer'd feers,
When a loud noise of steeds invades his ears.
He sees two damsels o'er the laire advance,
Borne on fair palfreys; one sustain'd a lance.
White was her bounding horse, and swift his pace,
He seem'd a courser of unearthly race.
Towards the wondering knight their way they speed:
Then thus the lady of the snowy steed:
"Accept this gift, which, ere to morrow's sun
"Thro' the bright firmament his course has run,
"Shall prove resistless in a threatening hour,
"And save thy noble house in deadly stow'r."
Then gave the lance. "Whoe'er, bright dame," said he,
"Thou art, that know'st me, better than I thee,

* For scarcely.

"Add

" Add to thy gift another grace, and teach
" The secret meaning of thy mystic speech!"
He ended: no reply the damsel made,
But spurr'd her snowy palfrey thro' the glade.'—
'Well wist the damsel, who the succouring knight:
Yet pale and breathless with her wild affright,
Around his neck her snowy arms she threw,
And with fond transport to his bosom grew.
There first, 'tis said, in many a thrilling kiss
He took sweet earnest of a dearer bliss.
Then on his steed the lovely burden flung,
And lightly in the lofty saddle sprung;
Clasp'd in his folding arms the blushing maid,
And urg'd his steed towards a gloomy shade.
There his faint courser's faltering vigor plains,
And with dissembled sorrow checks the reins.
Then, lighting from his sell, the damsel press'd
In that choice spot to woo the sweets of rest.
With loitering steps the lovely princess stray'd
Thro' the thick covert of a shadowy glade.
On a soft bank, where flowers of various hue
Mix'd their gay tints, her dainty limbs she threw.
Soft breath'd the damsel, and refreshing sleep
Seem'd her bright eyes in balmy dew to steep:
Her arms, which all that sculptors feign, surpass'd,
With sweet neglect amidst the flowers were cast;
And, for no zephyr slack'd noon's sultry tide,
Her mantle, gay with fur, was thrown aside:
While her transparent wimple wray'd to view
Her breast of loveliest form and fairest hue.
O'er the sweet maid the prince enamour'd hung,
Then round her waist, in speechless rapture, flung
His arms encircling; at the strict embrace,
Pass'd a soft blush across her lovely face.
Again his eager arms enfold the maid,
And his warm lips each tempting charm invade:
Broke from her heaving breast a smothered sigh,
But still soft slumber seal'd each drooping eye.
Or slept the damsel still, or paus'd the knight,
I wot not, I: woe worth the daring wight,
Who steals on Hymen's joys, and boldly wrays
Fond Love's mysterious rites to vulgar gaze!
But, sooth to say, if still soft slumber weigh'd
The drooping eyelids of the royal maid,
A dream of more than mortal joy, I wiss,
Lapt the sweet damsel's every sense in bliss.'

We have remarked a few false rhymes, as *air* and *near*, *protrudes* and *floods*, *tears* and *prepares*, *brake* and *shriek*, &c.

'A garland of o'ershadowing flowers place'

is a heavy line; while

'Full

'Full well she knows whose dear commands she bears,'

is surfeited with monosyllables.

The clashing termination of the following is hardly excuseable:

'And night around her friendly *shadows shed.*'

We have likewise to advert to the improper interchange of the singular and plural pronouns of the second person:

'Felon, *thy* sand is run, this hour *ye* die.'
'Freely with me, he answered, may'st *thou* wend' —
'But tell, fair damsel, whence and where *ye* stray.'
'What, and whence art *thou*, slave, the ruffian cried'—
'Defenceless, unappointed, as *ye* are.'

The translator's preface and notes discover an acquaintance with the manners of the middle age and the tales of chivalry.

Prefixed to this version, are two epistles in Latin elegiac verse, by the Hon. William Herbert; the first, founded on an incident in the first book of Amadis de Gaul, is intitled 'Elisena Perioni;' and the second, borrowed from the 10th canto of the second book of Spenser's Faerie Queen, is intitled 'Guendolena Locrino.' Both are creditable to Mr. H.'s intimacy with the Roman muse.

Muir.

ART. XIV. *Patriotism;* or, the Love of our Country: an Essay, illustrated by Examples from Ancient and Modern History; dedicated to the Volunteers of the United Kingdom. By William Frend, Esq. 8vo. pp. 312. 7s. Boards. Mawman. 1804.

WE need not introduce Mr. Frend to our readers as a *novus homo*; though he is less known to them as a political than as a polemical writer, and a mathematician. In the present volume, he directs his talents to the discussion of topics of immediate interest. He traces patriotism to its first principles as they exist in the nature of man, describes its operation and effects in Societies variously constituted, and then takes occasion to state the conduct on the part of governments which is best adapted to generate, foster, and extend the sentiment. The work is nervously and eloquently penned; it glows with benevolence, and breathes a mild and amiable spirit; it blends the temper of the Christian with the views of the philosopher, and unites an ardent regard for the public welfare with genuine loyalty. In every view, it reflects great credit on both the head and the heart of the writer; and it abounds with hints and reflections which deserve consideration from governors and governed, in times like those in which we live.

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Applauding the author's aim throughout, it is with pain that we make exception to some of his counsels, which are in our judgment not only erroneous, but such as may be attended with danger. We are persuaded that, if they appeared in the same light to the ingenious writer, he would not only retract them, but strenuously combat them.

It is observed by Mr. Frend that

'The equal and impartial administration of justice is another essential requisite for the security of patriotism. And this subject cannot be mentioned without gratitude to our ancestors, for their anxious labour to secure to their descendants this inestimable advantage. The trial by jury is so precious a relique, that when an Englishman becomes dastard enough not to prize it according to its worth, or to depreciate its merits, he sinks below the level of a slave; he deserves every degree of oppression, which the malice or the caprice of tyranny can suggest. By this admirable institution every man becomes acquainted with the laws; he is admitted to the participation of the most sacred office of government; he feels that he is a member of the state; he lives secure that his character and his property will be protected under the fair and equitable decision of his equals. That this true mode of trial should in any case whatsoever be infringed on, even in the case of arrests for debt, I most sincerely lament: and I am convinced, that I consult equally the interest of government and the people, in recommending, that upon no account whatsoever, sentence of deprivation of personal liberty should pass without the verdict of twelve men, who have tried the offence. The deprivation of personal liberty for the purpose of bringing an offender to justice is an exception to the general rule: but this deprivation should be confined to the highest offences; since, if a person quits his country to avoid the consequences of trial, the end of justice is in many cases as well answered as if the country was at the expence of transporting the miserable offender. If there is no country in the world, where justice is upon the whole exercised with equal impartiality, England ought to excel others in its patriotism.'

Inconveniences doubtless accompany the detention of which the author speaks: but if his notion were put in operation, offences would multiply, and it would be impossible to bring offenders to justice; they would not in general quit the country, as is here supposed, but would seek hiding-places within its limits. Besides, to make voluntary flight the only punishment of serious violations of law, would in many cases be to propose a premium on the commission of crimes. The practice of giving credit, which it is now too late to alter, renders arrest also indispensible in civil cases; and without the check arising from the inconvenience and shame with which it is attended, it would be impracticable to carry on the transactions of the world.

The author farther remarks:

'To

'To excite or preserve true patriotism no pains can be thought too great; but most writers look to the higher instead of the lower classes for its support. Its foundation must be however on the latter; and, if it is there lost, the efforts of the superior classes will be of no avail. Hence every man should be made to consider himself as connected with the state; should see his advantages bound up with it,' and, though low his situation, he will derive satisfaction from this ennobling connection. This connection should be brought home to his mind by the exercise of his prerogatives; and England has pointed out a way, which it is to be lamented, it has not consistently pursued. Her parliaments connect the people with the state. By the constitution settled at the revolution, they ought to be frequently renewed: a fatal blow in the reign of George the First prolonged the duration of parliament to seven years, and introduced a train of evils, which no efforts of future years will remove, as long as that violation of the constitution is permitted to endure.

'Elections are said to create turbulence, and a little turbulence may be expected in a very numerous assembly. But is not this occasional turbulence preferable to the deadly torpor of despotism? If we could conceive the representation of the united kingdom, as it is at present, to be destroyed, the manly sentiments, which distinguish this nation, would soon expire; and an Englishman would become a contemptible animal: the chilling hand of monarchy would paralyse every effort of industry; and the country by degrees be covered with its original morasses and forests. If elections were more frequent (annual would perhaps be the best), and the number of the voters enlarged, till by degrees it contained the whole of the nation at a certain age, the patriotism of the people would be in proportion increased, the throne of the sovereign more stable, and the ease of his government more certain.

'That this exercise of prerogative by the people is attended with the constant advantages of patriotism, we need only refer for proof to those countries where the people have or have not a share in the government. In the former case they are active, industrious, full of resources, and, unless peculiar circumstances have occurred to destroy the effects of their patriotism, invincible: where they have no share in the government, patriotism is unknown; a dull inert mass vegetates on the soil; the being is born and dies incapable of exercising the best energies of the mind, and the best feelings of his heart.'

It certainly deserves grave consideration whether the country could bear to undergo triennially the agitations and effervescence of a general election. It was observed by Speaker Onslow that the weight of the House of Commons was increased in consequence of the superior stability given to it by the septennial bill; and very able politicians have been convinced that the measures of universal suffrage and annual parliaments, so far from producing the consequence here supposed, would not be long in effecting a dissolution of the government. The aim of a wise reform ought, in our humble judgment, to be principally con-

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fined to the object of increasing and strengthening the mutual sympathies of the representatives and the represented.

The writer judiciously recommends a revival of those manly and salutary exercises which, among our ancestors, lent the aid of skill and strength to the valour inherent in British nature:

'Large cities (he observes) are unhappy in this respect. They give an importance to the silly, the trifling, and the effeminate, in the midnight route: but the manly exercises are, through the closeness of the buildings, and the want of suitable places, too much neglected. In every city ought to be open places, to which the inhabitants might have easy access, where they may vie with each other in those exercises, which give health and strength to the body and agility to the limbs.'

As a specimen of the gallant spirit and laudable zeal of this able advocate of patriotism, we subjoin the following extract from his address to the Volunteers:

'With motives superior to those of all other nations, the volunteers of Britain take the field, if the enemy is bold enough to execute his threats, to hazard his troops to the danger of the seas; and successful enough to escape our fleets, and land upon our shores. On his side valour and experience are not wanting: the love of plunder and mad ambition are the great incentives to his actions. No art of war will be untried by him, and the leader can depend on his followers for the due execution of every plan which consummate skill has meditated. To detract from the strength and the skill of the enemy is absurd: to abuse him with words is unworthy of the character of men and Englishmen. The whole danger being fully placed before our eyes, we are then able to meet it, and to direct our own efforts to the best advantage.

'Against such an enemy, Volunteers of Britain, ye are to march. The conflict is made with similar arms on both sides, but ye are said to be unequal from want of discipline to the contest. I could wish myself, if the invasion of a country were not of too serious a nature to admit of an experiment, I could wish myself, and in this wish I shall not want for a second among the volunteers; that what is called our regular army, were allowed only to be the spectators of the action. With all the boasts of French skill; with all the valour attributed to them; with all the advantages of art, they would bow to the superiority of nature. Let the plains of Egypt declare, what the best troops of France, their chosen invincibles, can effect against British valour: and that valour is no less the inbred quality of the volunteer who has never been into the field, than his who has been tried in various actions. Let us remember what was done by one of the most gallant of our sovereigns, when, resolved not to deprive his son of the glory of the best fought day, nor even to share in his praises, he proved to the French the strength of the British arms; and a witness merely to the deeds of valour of the troops under his son's command, he led his own down, not to assist but to congratulate the heroes,

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heroes, who forming only a part of his army, had fought and conquered the whole power of France.

'Is there less valour, less heroism now in England? And, if not, why should we doubt of our countrymen's prowess, or suppose that so much training is requisite to enable them to meet in the field the troops of a nation which their fathers so often have conquered? Besides, how disgraceful it must be to entertain a desponding opinion, when the numbers are now on our side, not on the French: when it is impossible for him to land in any quarter, where we cannot, in the space of twenty-four hours, bring double the number to resist him! An overweening confidence is injurious doubtless to any cause: but to dispraise our own countrymen; to endeavour to weaken their efforts, is the madness of folly. The volunteers of Britain have already shewn themselves worthy to meet the enemies in the field; since, disregarding the obloquy, and sneers of disappointed pride, they have proceeded coolly, firmly, and deliberately, in their noble purpose to perfect themselves in the use of arms, and to qualify themselves for that truly most honourable name, the name of citizen soldiers.

'Yes! in spite of the ridicule of France; in spite of the equally ill-founded scorn of some of our own countrymen, the volunteers of Britain have justly appreciated the nature of the services required of them. Who can fight with more ardour for wealth, for property, for honour, for family, for friends, for country, than he who arms himself to fight for his own property, his own honour, the honour of the dearest ties of blood, the honour of his friends, the safety and independence of his country? We would not depreciate the merits of a force, paid for its services, nor make a comparison on different degrees of skill; but in motives for exertion the volunteer assuredly is not inferiour to the regular; nor, because he exercises only at times suited to his other occupations, is he surpassed by every one whose daily employment is the use of arms. It is not the number of hours employed in the military any more than the other arts, which will perfect the artist: and the diligence, the assiduity, the ardour of the volunteer will more than compensate for the hours which others can bestow on military exercises.'—

'Continue then, Volunteers of Britain, as ye have begun. Perfect yourselves in the use of arms, without losing sight of the equally important duties of life. Be convinced, that there is nothing in the state of a soldier, which is not compatible with the duties and the employment of the citizen. Make the practice of arms your amusement. Imitate the ancient Romans in this respect, but detest their love of war and spirit of domination. If your services should be required against the enemies of your country, let a just reliance on him, who alone giveth victory in the day of battle, be your support: and let each man act, as if the whole honour of the country depended on his single exertions.'

Mr. Frend's hints on the military exercise of volunteers shew attention to the subject, and merit the notice of those who are engaged in this laudable pursuit.

Jo.

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ART. XV. *Reports of the Society for bettering the Condition and increasing the Comforts of the Poor.* Vol. III. including No. 13. to 18. 8vo. 1s. per Number. Hatchard, &c.

WHILE we apologize to this Society for having so long abstained from noticing these reports, we beg to assure it that the omission has arisen from no declining regard for its avowed object, nor from any want of esteem for its members and their labours. We continue to respect the principles on which it proceeds; and though we fear that the evils which affect the condition of the Poor are too radical to be completely relieved by the exertions of a single Society, we feel it to be our duty to applaud every experiment which is made with this view.

In stating the contents of Vol. II. (see M. R. Vol xxxv. N. S. p. 273.) our attention was directed to a judicious prefatory essay by Mr. Bernard; and on the present occasion we are required in the first place to make our acknowlegements to the same gentleman, for the very sensible and pertinent remarks which are contained in his Letter to the Bishop of Durham, forming the Introduction to the volume before us.

It is easy to declaim, with the indolent, the selfish, and the proud, against those charities which are designed to narrow the boundaries of poverty and distress; and it is also easy to object to benevolence, that it is liable to misapplication, and that its ultimate aim seems, in the existing state of things, to be unattainable: but the wise and the good will never be induced by such considerations to steel their hearts against the sentiments of compassion, nor to remain inactive spectators of growing vice and misery. Without wasting their time in romantic speculation, they will have recourse to this plain practical principle, which Mr. Bernard denominates the POLAR STAR of our benevolent affections, viz. 'that whatever encourages and promotes habits of *industry*, *prudence*, *foresight*, *virtue*, and *cleanliness* among the poor, is beneficial to them and to the country; whatever removes, or *diminishes the incitement to any of these qualities* *, is detrimental to the state, and pernicious to the individual.'

We

* We were pleased to find Mr. B. adverting to an injudicious mode pursued in some parishes during the late scarcity, of making up the earnings of the cottager and his family to *a certain sum* by parochial relief;—a mode which must have tended to diminish the energy and provident industry of the Poor; since he who may have done *task-work*, and *laboured extra hours*, and kept his wife and children to constant employment, obtained no *extra advantage* from it, but on the Saturday night was put on the very same footing with him whose earnings had been small, and whose family had been indolent. A parish

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We sincerely wish that this position could be kept in view whenever estimates of national prosperity and happiness are attempted; for then statesmen would not be so much dazzled by the glare of commercial wealth, as to think lightly of the morals and condition of the Poor, nor suppose that the only mill-stone about our neck is the National Debt.

'The national debt, (observes Mr. B.) with all its magnitude of terror, is of little moment, when compared with the increase of the poor-rates. In that instance, what is received from one subject, is paid, in a greater part, to another; so that it amounts to little more than a rent-charge, from one class of individuals to another. But the poor's-rate is the barometer, which marks *in all the apparent sun-shine of prosperity*, the progress of internal weakness and debility; and as trade and manufactures are extended, as our commerce encircles the terraqueous globe, it increases with a fecundity most astonishing; it grows with our growth, and augments with our strength; its root, according to our present system, being laid in the *vital source* of our existence and prosperity.'

After having considered the effect of work-houses in not only raising by actual waste the price of provisions, but by injuring the prudential habits, lessening the energy of the Poor, and weakening among them the bonds of family connection, Mr. B. lays down the plan on which the Society proceeds, and by which alone the country can be benefited:

'The only rational hope of diminishing our present parochial burthens, and of affording a remedy to those evils which are incident to populous and opulent states, must be founded on the success of measures FOR BETTERING THE CONDITION OF THE POOR. It must be by the education of youth, by the moral and religious habits of mature age, by the improvement of the cottager's means of life, by the increase of his resources, and of his habits of industry and foresight,—by these means, and by these only, that the condition of the poor can ever be essentially and permanently improved, the prosperity of the country augmented, and the parochial burthens eventually diminished. Without these means, work-houses and alms-houses, public charities and hospitals, may be erected with increasing and unwearied diligence throughout the land, and yet never keep pace with the progress of indigence and misery.'

The papers in this volume begin with No. 70, and contain Extracts from an account of the relief granted to the Poor at Mongewell and its neighbourhood;—a farther account of the

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parish in Gloucestershire, Mr. B. tells us, adopted a better plan: 'The Vestry agreed to fix a determinate and moderate sum, as the amount of an ordinary week's labour, and they gave an additional allowance, according to the number in family; leaving the cottager and his family the full benefit of all exertion and extra labour.'

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Cork Society;—of a village shop at Greenford, in Middlesex;—of what is doing to prevent scarcity and to restore plenty in this country, in which are enumerated the several exertions that were made during the last scarcity: among these is mentioned the sum of 4000l. subscribed by the members of this Society, for supplying the metropolis during the winter with corned cod and other fish; and this general observation is subjoined, applicable to all seasons of scarcity, that 'nothing but increase of food, or improved economy and management in the use of it, can supply the deficiency or remedy the evil;'—Account of the superior advantages of dibbling wheat;—of a supply of milk for the Poor at Stockton, in the county of Durham;—of a village shop at Hanwell;—of the gardens of Cottagers in the county of Cambridge, who were stimulated to peculiar exertions in raising vegetables, by a proposal of Lord Hardwicke to give small premiums to those who should appear to have taken the greatest care of their gardens;—of the Free Chapel in West-street, St. Giles's; with observations on the beneficial tendency of such establishments for the Poor;—of a plan for supplying bread at Exmouth;—of what has been done for the relief of the Poor at Whelford;—of the Soup-house in West-street, St. Giles's;—of a parish library for the Poor, consisting of the Cheap Repository Tracts, and others of a similar kind;—of a cottage at Shelford, Cambridgeshire;—of a female benefit club, at Tottenham;—of the mode of parochial relief, at and near Wendover, and at Shepton Moyne; which went on the principle of encouraging industry while it extended relief;—of the manner in which the Poor have been supplied with rice and beef at St. Alban's;—of an establishment for the Poor at Edinburgh;—of a Sunday friendly Society for the aged Poor, at Bishop Auckland, supported by the Bishop of Durham;—of the Schools of Industry at Kendal, which appear to be excellent establishments, calculated at a small expence to train up the Poor to habits of industry, order, and cleanliness, as well as to give them necessary instruction. We approve the stress which Dr. Briggs, the promoter of these institutions, lays on the first object; for in making children regular and orderly, they are most effectually initiated in the paths of virtue. Account of a supply of blankets to the Poor at Kendal;—of the Institution to prevent the progress of contagious fever in the Metropolis, similar to the plan adopted at Manchester;—of the London school for indigent Blind;—of several charities at Kendal, which respected the healthiness as well as the support of the Poor;—of the measures taken, during the late scarcity, for supplying the Poor with corned herrings and other cheap fish;—of the Harborne Penny-club for supplying poor children with

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with clothing, and promoting decency and cleanliness;—of schools for poor children at Weston, near Bath;—of the Repository at Manchester for the benefit of persons reduced in their circumstances; and of the Institution for investigating the nature and cure of the Cancer.

In addition to the above, seventeen papers in the form of Appendixes are subjoined to this volume; containing, a curious case on the 43d of Elizabeth, with the opinion of Serjeant Snigge, in the reign of James I.; the Bishop of Durham's Charge to the Churchwardens of his Diocese; Dr. Willan's description of the effects of the intemperate use of spirituous liquors; accounts of the Asylum of Maternity at Paris, and of the Moravian converts at the Cape of Good Hope; with other extracts adapted to elucidate and recommend the general object of this publication.

The Members of this Society appear not to be "*weary of well doing.*" Other reports are published by them; and of their perseverance we shall hope in due time to speak with all the respect to which such "*labours of love*" are intitled.

Mon.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For DECEMBER, 1804.

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 16. *Observations on Diarrhœa and Dysentery*, as those Diseases appeared in the British Army during the Campaign in Egypt in 1801. To which are prefixed a Description of the Climate of Egypt, and a Sketch of the Medical History of the Campaign. By Henry Dewar, late Assistant-surgeon to the 30th Regiment of Foot. 8vo. pp. 161. 4s. Boards. Murray.

THIS author has had occasion, during his practice in Egypt, to remark various striking instances of the connection which exists between many of the complaints originating from cold. Diarrhœa and Rheumatism occasionally occurred together, but more frequently they alternated with each other. This alternation however did not take place when the rheumatic affection was the effect of overstrained muscular exertion, or the diarrhœa was produced by any acrimony in the *primæ viæ*. Mr. Dewar also observed a similar connection between bowel complaints and pneumonia, especially when the constitution had been impaired by a former dysentery.

'When the system,' he informs us, 'was exposed in a susceptible state, to the effects of cold, symptoms of an incipient inflammation in the lungs were accompanied with uneasiness in the bowels, and, where the disease was not stopped, it terminated sometimes in pneumonia, sometimes in

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diarrhœa. In Egypt, bowel complaints were observed by the medical gentlemen, both in the French service and ours, to alternate remarkably with ophthalmia. This last disease, though it did not in general yield to the administration of purgatives, often disappeared on the patient being attacked with diarrhœa. And on the other hand, it frequently attacked a patient when a diarrhœa or a dysentery was cured. Diseases of the bowels are also well known to alternate with the different species of lichen, and other cutaneous diseases.'

For the cure of diarrhœa, the author chiefly trusted to opium, chalk, Dover's powder, or alum: but he is of opinion that Army-surgeons should be provided with a great variety of astringents, in order to have a better opportunity of curing this complaint when obstinate.

Mr. D.'s account of dysentery (into which he has frequently observed diarrhœa to degenerate) does not materially differ from that of other authors. In the early stages of it, purgatives were generally exhibited; or if the stomach was oppressed, emetics, so as to have the double operation of vomiting and purging. While the bowels are thus stimulated, he considers it as of most essential importance to guard against the effects of cold; and for this purpose he recommends the use of 'four or five folds of fine flannel, or a large piece of fleecy hosiery, to be laid over the abdomen, and over this a flannel bandage to be bound rather tight, and in a uniform manner from the groin nearly to the arm-pits and back again.'—The good effects of this bandage, which were in almost every case strongly exemplified, the author is disposed to refer to the confinement of a larger quantity of heat over that part of the body which is the seat of the disease. After a day, or a day and half of rest, purgatives were again generally administered; and thus 'by alternately exciting the bowels by purgatives, and allowing them to rest, using at the same time the flannel bandage, the greater part of dysenteries in Egypt,' we are informed, 'gradually yielded.' Opiates were employed to remove the tormina in the intermediate day: but, where the bandage was used, the author tells us, that they were seldom necessary.

Art. 17. *An Inquiry into the Rot in Sheep, and other Animals*, in which a Connection is pointed out between it and some obscure and obstinate Disorders in the Human Constitution. By Edward Harrison, M.D. F.R.A.S. Edin. &c. &c. 8vo. 2s. Bickerstaff. 1804.

The numerous opportunities enjoyed by Dr. Harrison, for making this Disease the subject of his particular observation, confirm him in an idea which he has long entertained, that the rot in sheep and other animals is the production of marsh effluvia, and therefore connected in its nature with several diseases of the human subject, which arise from a similar cause. He presents us with the following account of the phænomena and progress of this serious malady:

'When in warm, sultry, and rainy weather, sheep that are grazing on low and moist lands, feed rapidly, and some of them die suddenly, there is reason to fear that they have contracted the rot. This suspicion will be further increased, if a few weeks afterwards the sheep

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begin to shrink, and become flaccid in their loins. By pressure about the hips at this time, a crackling is sometimes perceptible. Now, or soon afterwards, the countenance looks pale, and upon parting the fleece, the skin is found to have exchanged its vermilion tint for a pale red; and the wool is easily separated from the pelt. As the disorder advances, the skin becomes dappled with yellow, or black spots. About this time, the eyes lose their lustre, and become white and pearly, from the red vessels of the tunica adnata, and eye-lids, being contracted or entirely obliterated. To this succeed debility and emaciation, which increase continually till the sheep die; or else ascites, and perhaps general dropsy, supervene, before the fatal termination. These symptoms are rendered more severe, by an obstinate purging, which comes on at an uncertain period of the disorder. In the progress of the complaint, sheep become what the graziers call chockred, *i. e.* affected with a swelling under the chin, which proceeds from a fluid contained in the cellular membrane, under the throat.

'In five or six days after contracting the rot, the thin edge of the small lobe of the liver becomes of a transparent white or bluish colour, and this spreads along the upper and lower sides, according to the severity of the complaint. Sometimes it does not extend more than an inch from the margin. In severe cases, the whole peritoneum investing the liver is diseased; and then it commonly assumes an opaque colour, interspersed with dark red lines or patches. The upper part of the liver is sometimes speckled like the body of a toad, to which it is said to bear a striking resemblance: round the ductus communis choledocus, and hepatic vessels, a jelly-like matter is deposited, which varies according to the severity of the attack, from a table spoonful, or less, to five or six times that quantity. Upon boiling, the liver loses its firmness, and separates into small pieces in the water, or remains soft and flaccid.

'Several graziers, and butchers, with whom I have conversed at different times, having observed that sheep are much disposed to feed during the first three or four weeks after being tainted, omit no opportunity of producing it to increase their profits. When the first stage is over, flukes begin to appear in the pori biliarii, the ductus communis choledocus, and in the gall-bladder. At first, the quantity of these creatures is small; but as the disease advances, they increase, and before death are often very numerous. In the last part of the complaint, they are sometimes to be found in the stomach, as well as in the intestines and liver.'

This disease, like the visceral disorders of the human body, terminates in resolution, effusion, suppuration, or schirrus.

The rot, we are informed, is not confined to sheep; it affects horses, cows, asses, hogs, deer, hares, rabbits, geese, pigeons, turkies, and poultry.—Poor, clayey, and loamy lands are most subject to produce rot, because the water is apt to stagnate on them, and cannot be removed but by evaporation. Grounds which are always dry, or always under water, or such as are wet enough to preserve a continual run and circulation, have never been known to give rise to it. Dr. Harrison mentions many facts in corroboration of this statement; and

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and in particular he says that, when land which has been very liable, in ordinary circumstances, to produce rot, has been overflowed so as to oblige the sheep to wade for their food, this disease has not appeared among them.

A very short exposure to marsh effluvia only is necessary to give sheep the rot; for (says Dr. H.) as soon as the flood is subsided, after an accidental overflow of a brook which runs through the farm of a gentleman mentioned by the author, 'sheep can at any time be tainted in a quarter of an hour, while the land retains its moisture, and the weather is hot and sultry. The butchers are so well acquainted with the importance of this fact, that when my friend has disposed of any fat sheep, they are usually turned upon his rotten ground to make them thrive faster.'

The most effectual method known by the author for preventing rot is judicious drainage.

Information is earnestly solicited by Dr. Harrison from medical practitioners or agriculturists, relative to any disorder in the human subject or brutes that is imputable to *Miasmata*.

Yell.

Art. 18. *The Anatomy and Physiology of the Horse's Foot*, concisely described; with practical Observations on Shoeing; together with the Symptoms of, and most approved Remedies for, the Diseases of Horses. With Fourteen illustrative Plates. By James White, Veterinary Surgeon to his Majesty's First, or Royal Dragoons. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Chapman. 1801 *.

This is an useful manual, written with neatness and perspicuity, and illustrated with very tolerable coloured prints. The observations on diseases are judicious, and shew a thorough acquaintance with the subject; and the practice appears to be rational, and well-adapted to relieve the sufferings of a most valuable class of Animals. The form of this compilation is peculiarly suitable to a great number of readers who will feel themselves interested in the subject, but whose situation precludes them from the acquisition of more expensive works.

Fer.

Art. 19. *Plain Remarks on Fever*, with the View to explain the Origin and Nature of the Fever, which lately appeared in Newcastle. Addressed to the Inhabitants. By James Wood, M.D. One of the Physicians to the Infirmary, Dispensary, &c. at Newcastle. 12mo. 6d. Printed at Newcastle.

Dr. Wood seems to be very anxious to prove that the fever, of which he here treats, did not arise from contagion produced in the miserable dwellings of the poor, but from 'that particular state of the weather, which commonly prevails at such a season, which produces more or less of debility and lays a general foundation for fever.' At the same time he thinks that 'unless other causes conspire, fever does not take place; for although all are exposed more or less to the weather, yet comparatively few are ever affected with fever. The present fever then does not appear to have been alone the effect of the weather; fatigue with great exertion, and local causes have com-

* This article has been accidentally mislaid.

bined

bined with the state of the weather to produce it, and made, perhaps, the effects of cold, with rain or wet cloaths, more sensibly felt.'

The disease appeared to Dr. W. to be less contagious than any fever which he has seen for many years, to have originated in every part of the town about the same time, and to have principally confined its ravages to the higher orders of society.

Many parts of this pamphlet betray a considerable portion of that professional jealousy, which is so much to be lamented whenever it appears; and the author sarcastically remarks, that many of the rich in Newcastle may have been mistaken in their choice of the *best* advice. He seems to consider himself as meriting particular credit for venturing, ten years ago, to change the treatment of fever in that large town, and to shew that bark would not cure it; and he informs us that he has lived to see the inutility of bark in fever almost generally admitted among medical men: but he does not state what is the mode of treatment which has been successfully substituted, unless it be the use of cooling saline medicines, assisted by antimonials, which, he tells us, he has adopted with great success for ten years, to the exclusion of bark, opium, wine, or brandy. Yell.

Art. 20. *An Inquiry into the Causes which produce, preserve, and propagate Febrile Contagious Diseases, in Newcastle and Gateshead;* with a Detail of interesting Facts, relative to the Fever which prevailed in the Months of October and November last; accompanied with a Report of the unfortunate Persons of Respectability who fell Victims to the Disease, and a correct Statement of the Fever as it appeared amongst the Military. General Remarks on the Disease. The decisive Means of insuring the Safety of the Inhabitants, &c. &c. By a Member of the College of Surgeons in London. 8vo. pp. 72. 2s. 6d. Printed at Newcastle. 1804.

A very striking and interesting account of the miserable situation of many of the lower orders of society in Newcastle is given in this pamphlet; the anonymous author of which ascribes, and we think with justice, the frequent appearance of febrile contagion in that place to the effects produced by a number of persons living in confined, ill-ventilated, and dirty apartments. The late fever he considers as distinctly referable to this cause; and he states it as proved that the higher orders of society, who were affected with it, became so by accidental intercourse with others of a different description: 'The fever,' he says, 'prevailed with great malignity in the neighbourhood of the Quayside. The daily resort of commercial gentlemen into that quarter of the town, exposed several to the influence of contagion, as appears from the *only* persons of respectability seized with fever having been in the habit of transacting business on the Quay every day.'

A list is annexed of the commercial gentlemen who fell victims to this complaint, and the progress of the disease is circumstantially narrated; with the names and address of the various individuals specified by whose means it was diffused. The disease is traced by the author to a pauper of the name of Scott.

The military appear to have afforded a great number of examples of Typhus Fever, at the time that it was so prevalent in Newcastle and

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and Gateshead; since, as they were quartered in some of the most wretched dwellings, they were particularly exposed to the operation of contagion. A few cases are detailed, to shew the history and progress of the fever with which they were affected.

'The symptoms,' it appears, 'differed materially in force and mode of action, either commencing with great violence, or slight in degree. The muscular powers of the body were invariably affected with tremors, startings, and partial convulsions, attended with increased or diminished action of the vascular system. The suffused appearance of the eye, flushed and intoxicated aspect of the countenance, were prominent and constant features of the disease. Affection of the organs of respiration, hæmorrhage from the nose, petechiæ, extreme sensibility to cool air, &c. attended the disease in many cases. The sudden appearance of a florid rash on the skin occurred in several patients, but was not attended with any apparent change in the progress of febrile symptoms; the head-ach, and aching pains of the limbs appeared the most distressful symptoms. The appearance of the eye and countenance afforded the medical observer the most correct idea of the progress and probable issue of the disease. The crisis (which generally took place on the 7th day) was marked by increasing strength, and expansion of the pulse; gentle delirium, attended with energetic expressions of lively ideas; the separation of lentous matter from the tongue; mucus sediment in the urine; return of appetite, and increased relish for wine; animated countenance, succeeded by gradual restoration of the impaired animal functions.

'In the cases which terminated fatally (generally on the 5th and 11th day), there appeared an evident determination to some important organ; stupor, startings, and convulsions indicating great oppression of the brain; hiccup, tension and inflation of the abodemen, painful on pressure; involuntary and fœtid stools; some affection of the abdominal viscera.'

The treatment, by means of bark and wine, which is so much condemned by Dr. Wood in the tract noticed in the preceding article, was of essential service. 'The sick were continually craving for wine, which was swallowed with the utmost avidity. Each dose appeared to excite the impaired energies of the system, under the depressing influence of malignant disease; the pulse became stronger; delirium, stupor, and convulsions relaxed; the countenance became more animated, and the intellectual faculties collected. Even in cases of fever, attended with great action of the vascular system, and affection of the organs of respiration, the free exhibition of wine did not appear in the least to aggravate the disease.'

The present author seems to be completely at issue with Dr. Wood the origin, nature, progress, and treatment of this fever. His inquiry is, in general, written with candour, and bears the stamp of good sense, knowlege of the subject, and humanity.

Art. 21. *The London Dissector*; or a Compendium of Practical Anatomy; containing a Description of the Muscles, Vessels, Nerves, and Viscera of the human Body, as they appeared on Dissection; with Directions for their Demonstration. 12mo. pp. 293. Murray. 1804.

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This work may be useful to the students of practical anatomy. In the compilation of it, the author has been much indebted to the dissections of Mr. Charles Bell.

Art. 22. *A Treatise on Cheltenham Waters*, and Bilious Diseases: containing. 1. The Chemical and Medical Properties of the Saline Springs of Cheltenham, and its Neighbourhood. 2. Arrangement, and History of Bilious Diseases occurring in this Country. 3 The Uses of the Saline Waters in curing Diseases. 4. Directions for the most appropriate Mode of Drinking the Waters. 5. Geological Experiments for the Discovery of new Saline Springs at Cheltenham. 6. The Nature, and Uses of the Steel Well in Mr. Barret's Field. To which are prefixed, Observations on Fluidity, Mineral Waters, and Watering Places. By Thomas Jameson, M.D. Physician at Cheltenham. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Murray.

However numerous and particular the directions may be, which works written on the subject of mineral waters contain, relative to their employment, it is a fortunate circumstance for the physician, and particularly for the resident physician, that there is little chance of such directions superseding the necessity, or at least the desire of medical advice. Whatever degree of credit, therefore, we might be disposed to give to Dr. Jameson, for the mode in which he has executed what many consider as a requisite duty, on settling at a watering-place, it would be unfair to represent him as having rendered it unnecessary for a patient who has bought his book to trouble him farther during his stay at Cheltenham. Such a circumstance would, indeed, be more than he anticipates: but, in order to prevent the possibility of its occurrence, he gives this advice to valetudinarians: 'Prudence requires that invalids should always be directed, before they drink the waters, whether they are to pursue a laxative, or a purging plan; and after they have continued their use a certain time, to know whether changes have taken place in their constitution, or their disease, to interdict their further use.'

The supply of Cheltenham water has, for some time past, the author informs us, been diminishing; and he has therefore performed an acceptable service to the frequenters of this spa, in discovering that a sufficiency of water to answer any demands which can possibly be made on it may readily be obtained.

The uses of the Cheltenham waters are so well known, from previous publications, that it is unnecessary to make any abstracts from the present author's observations on this subject. He subjoins the analysis of a Chalybeate spring which has lately come into use at Cheltenham, and which is represented to contain, of

	Grains.
Oxyd of iron - - -	1.36
Muriate of lime - -	2.55
Muriate of soda - -	2.02
Sulphate of lime - -	.73
Carbonate of magnesia and lime -	12.55
Solid contents	19.21

Carbonic

	Cubic Inches.
Carbonic acid gas - -	24.
Atmospheric air - -	20.
Nitrogen gas - -	8.
Gaseous fluids	52.'

POLITICAL.

Art. 23. *Sketch of a Plan for the Salvation of England, and the Emancipation of Europe.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Ridgway.

If, in order to give pleasure, fiction must assume the semblance of truth, schemes, in order to excite interest, should be shewn to be practicable. By the plan which this writer sketches, however, we are not amused even with the phantoms of hope; for he makes our salvation to depend on circumstances which are not likely to take place. The hearty and disinterested concurrence of Austria and Russia with us, in endeavouring to reduce the power of France to its antient limits, who can expect? After the great changes which have occurred in Europe, we must not look back to the restoration of the Republic of Venice, and every petty sovereignty which has been shaken from its base, but to wise and vigorous measures for the future. It is easy to represent Great Britain as obnoxious to invasion, and to recommend liberal subsidies to the emperor in order to induce him to fight our battles: but our best policy is to depend on ourselves; to study the strength of our insular situation; and vast as the power of France may be, to stand in a fearless attitude against her, and, whether in war or peace, to manifest our greatness by our exertions and our virtue.

Art. 24. *Perpetual War the only Ground of perpetual Safety and Prosperity.* By the Reverend Edward Hankin, M.A. M.D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons.

According to this *Christian* divine, the *turning of spears into pruning hooks* must never come again in fashion; and he recommends to Great Britain the Irish measure of making 'war a necessary part of her peace establishment.' No body of men can more seriously lament the enormous power of France than ourselves: but we are by no means sure that *perpetual* war is essential to its diminution, and to our own security against it. Mr. Hankin, however, is of a contrary opinion. He thinks that we shall cease to be secure when we sheath the sword, and that we shall continue to prosper and to weaken the enemy by keeping it constantly drawn. It is even supposed by him that we shall effect changes in the government of France, by protracted warfare; or, to use his own words, by 'continuing to shut her up by sea she must break out by land, must prey on the vitals of her citizens and ravage neighbouring territories, so as at last to provoke general resistance.' When the necessary provisions and arrangements for war are once made, the subsequent taxes to support it are represented as light; and by proper regulations in the collection of revenue, Mr. H. thinks that they may be kept from augmentation. To use a vulgar phrase, all this is fine talking: but we must not be led away by sounding words. Are the losses, horrors, and expences of war

war, trifling matters? Is blood ever to flow? Must two such powerful nations as Great Britain and France vow eternal hostility; and can no prudent accommodation *ever* take place? We cannot believe it. For some time to come, it will be right for us to be a vigilant and armed nation: but we see neither the necessity nor the practicability of 'perpetual war.' Moy.

Art. 25. *A serious and impartial Address to all the independent Electors of the United Kingdoms, upon the recent Middlesex Election*; in which the Proceedings and Transactions of that extraordinary event are candidly and constitutionally discussed and investigated; the fatal Tendency and destructive Consequence of such a Precedent considered; and the whole viewed as a grand national Cause, in which that most invaluable Privilege, the Elective Franchise, and the Representative System itself are most intimately involved. By Walter Honeywood Yate, Esq. an Independent Freeholder of the Counties of Gloucester and Worcester. 8vo. 2s. Longman and Co. 1804.

Assuming as a principle,—that which no true Englishman will deny,—that *the Purity of the Elective Franchise* is the most sacred of our privileges, Mr. Yate proceeds to consider in what manner this principle was outraged by the proceedings at the last Middlesex Election. Being a zealous whig, he exhorts his countrymen to espouse those who step forwards the avowed champions of 'the forgotten liberties' of the people of England; and he regards the hustings at Brentford, to which he endeavours to transport the thoughts of his readers, as not less calculated to excite the glow of patriotism than the plains of Marathon. The conduct of the sheriffs meets with pointed condemnation; and it is here observed, 'that the procrastination of the examination of the contested votes to so late a period as the close of the poll, when their official duties in this respect expired, and the return became resolute, has virtually had the operation of transferring all the rights of the electors to the returning officer.' This is indeed the true state of the question, which must engage the attention of the House of Commons; and on its decision it will depend, whether that house shall consist in future of the representatives of the freeholders of Great Britain, or of the mere representatives of the returning officers. It is no doubt, as Mr. Yate remarks, the interest of the whole body of electors to take up this subject *warmly*; but in his address to them he should have entered more fully into the history and merits of this particular case, and not have occupied so much of his pamphlet with general observations on the nature of liberty, and on the inestimable value of the British constitution. Moy.

Art. 26. *Calm and dispassionate Address to Sir Francis Burdett*, Bart. pointing out to him the Causes of his Defeat at the Election of a Member of Parliament for the County of Middlesex. By an Independent Freeholder. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

Art. 27. *Reply to a Pamphlet entitled A calm and dispassionate Address* to Sir Francis Burdett, Bart. on the late Election for Middlesex. By Rugbiensis. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stewart.

On the independent freeholder, who gives himself full scope in

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calumniating Sir F. Burdett, the author of the Reply inflicts a spirited and merited castigation. This champion of the Baronet (who, though only signing himself *Rugbiensis*, refers us for his real name to No. 7, Carey-street,) admits that on some occasions he has been violent: but Rugbiensis cannot endure to hear Sir Francis accused of associating with men who wished to dethrone the king; and he treats this charge as the effect of rank malignity. 'Is it not,' he asks, 'an insult on common sense, to suppose that Sir F. B., possessed of an immense estate, and princely revenue, should desire to involve his country in destruction, and drag a prince from the throne of mercy to the scaffold?'. Allegations of this nature may proceed from 'an independent freeholder,' but not from an independent mind. It still remains to be decided whether Sir Francis really sustained a *defeat* at the late Middlesex election. If the return be declared illegal, 'the Calm and Dispassionate Address' will refer to a non-entity.

THEOLOGICAL. May.

Art. 28. *St. Luke's Preface to his Gospel examined:* with reference to Mr. Marsh's Hypothesis respecting the Origin of the three first Gospels. 8vo. 1s. Printed at Bath.

In the controversy excited by Mr. Marsh's hypothesis relative to the origin of the first three Gospels, the preface affixed to St. Luke's Gospel is very material evidence, and it is important to have it correctly stated, and clearly understood. It expressly declares that "notwithstanding many before St. Luke had attempted to compose a narrative of the transactions of Christ's life and ministry, collected from the discourses or testimony of those who from the beginning were eye-witnesses and ministers of the word; it seemed expedient for him, who had enjoyed opportunities of tracing things from their rise, to digest a history of them, that his friend Theophilus might be assured of the truth of those facts in which he had been instructed."

It is true that St. Luke's account casts no direct reflection on these *many*, either as dishonest or inaccurate: but, by the intimation of the propriety of subjoining his account to theirs, it seems to be implied that he did not consider Theophilus as perfectly safe if left altogether to their reports. If St. Luke's proem does not condemn the numerous gospels of his predecessors, it is no sanction of their authority; unless indeed it be contended that by the word κἀμοὶ he meant to put himself on a par with them: which can hardly be supposed, when he expressly assigns the reason of his writing to be that Theophilus might know ἀσφάλειαν, the truth or certainty of things. Whether we take the Greek word to signify *truth* in opposition to *falsehood* or *mistake*, or to denote *certainty* opposed to *doubt*, the evangelist claims a superiority over the *many*; though he does not say that he was called to the office of gospel historian, but merely that it seemed good *to himself* to undertake it. By *many*, he could not intend Matthew and Mark; nor mean by this preface that he was proceeding to subjoin his evidence to theirs.

Now the question is, how does this account comport with Mr. Marsh's hypothesis of a common document as the basis of the first three gospels? Were the *many*, here designated, transcribers from an

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Hebrew document furnished by or stamped with the authority of the apostles of our Lord; or were their several narratives the result of what they collected from the preaching of the apostles and the reports of the faithful? It is surely natural to suppose, as the author of the pamphlet before us remarks, that St. Luke's words refer not to one memoir, the joint work of divers authors, but to several distinct accounts; yet it does appear that the basis of these several and distinct accounts is the evidence (how collected and transmitted, we are not told) of those who were eye-witnesses and ministers of the word. This evidence might have been in a written record, or it might be the actual preaching of those of the apostles who were alive, or oral tradition preserved in the church.

In order to make St. Luke's preface serve his purpose, Mr. Marsh would translate the Greek phrase, rendered in the common version, "set forth in order," by the words *re-arrange:* but, if the original document was drawn up from communications made by the apostles, could *many* persons venture to re-arrange it without meriting the charge of the greatest presumption?

The examiner sagely asks, 'what does "write" mean in St. Luke's preface? I should think it meant "a new narrative." The "many" re-arranged an old narrative. What did St. Luke do as distinguishing his labours from theirs? He "wrote" and so simple a word cannot be brought to signify all that Mr. M. describes.'

It is supposed by Mr. M. that the words from "A Declaration to ——— ministers of the word" are nothing more than a Greek translation of the title of the Hebrew document; and he thinks that the expression "delivered them *to us*," instead of 'delivered them to them,' proves that these cannot be St. Luke's own words: but the examiner is of opinion that the "*to us*" is not so conclusive as Mr. M. imagines; and moreover that so long a title to a MS. does not comport with the oriental costume.

Mr. Marsh may possibly have overstrained St. Luke's meaning: but we do not allow that he has thus exposed Christianity to many serious objections. Whatever interpretation may be placed on certain words of his preface, thus much is evident, that St. Luke pledges himself to write things which he knew to be true; and therefore his testimony is worthy of credit.

Moy.

POETRY.

ART. 29. *Petrarca:* a Selection of Sonnets from various Authors. With an introductory Dissertation on the Origin and Structure of the Sonnet. Crown 8vo. pp. 200. 7s. 6d. Boards. Baldwins. 1803.

The critical dissertation, prefixed to these sonnets, is neatly penned, and conveys the sentiments of Roscoe, Drake, Warton, &c. on the nature and composition of the sonnet; without any particular claims to originality, or uncommon felicity of thought or expression.

The sonnets are sufficiently numerous, and, with a few exceptions, well selected. Besides several which are anonymous, we are here presented with some of the best by the Earl of Surrey, Shakspeare, Milton, Drummond, Mary Robinson, Charlotte Smith, Bowles, Miss Seward, Roscoe, Warton, Hayley, Cowper, Viscount

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Strangford, &c. That which was addressed to Petrarch, and 'The Delusions of a Lover's Hope,' by Crowe, are now first published; and the following, which is anonymous, is also original:

'High meed of honourable toil, fair fame!
The guide and guardian of the noble mind,
Still round the warrior's dusty temples bind
The laurel wreath, and light the lambent flame;
If letter'd merit call, attend the sage,
The boast of science and the friend of truth,
Feed the warm fancy of poetic youth,
And write their names on thy immortal page.
More dear Obscurity to me—I love
The sober silent shade; the hermit cell,
Where by calm solitude is pain beguiled;
And the low tenant of the hallow'd grove
Soothing the fond, weak heart, that lov'd too well,
May mourn SELINA'S loss in accents wild.'

The volume is handsomely printed, and embellished by three appropriate engravings, neatly executed from drawings by the author's brother. Muir.

Art. 30. *The Raising of Jaïrus' Daughter;* a Poem. By Francis Wrangham, M.A. To which is annexed a short Memoir, interspersed with a few Poetical Productions, of the late Caroline Symmons. Crown 8vo. pp. 50. 2s. 6d. sewed. Mawman.

The Muses, like the spectres in Macbeth, "will not be commanded;" and when the ladies refuse to smile, it is all "double, double, toil and trouble." In the present poem, Mr. W. seems rather to drag his genius after him than to be impelled and animated by it. He labours at a task which he has imposed on himself, and spins out line after line, apparently "from hard bound brains." To the right hand and to the left he turns aside for accessory ideas and illustrations; and though he prohibits 'foot profane from vexing the chaste ground,' he liberally avails himself of the very aid which he disclaims, and blends classic fiction with gospel narrative.—We cannot, in truth, repeat our former compliments to Mr. W. on this occasion; not because we think less favourably of his abilities than we did formerly, but because we discover in this poem more of painful effort, than of felicity of thought. From the beginning to the end of it, he seems to be saying to himself, "I will write a poem, *coute qui coute.*" The little that applies immediately to the subject, we shall transcribe; leaving the passage without a comment to speak for itself:

'——————And now the deafening din
Of minstrel mourners marks the dreas abode,
Where fast the maiden slumbers; undisturb'd
By wailing friends, the deep funereal dirge,
And all the pomp of grief. And now her hand
The SAVIOUR takes; now from th' almighty lip
Issues the irresistible decree,
"Damsel, arise." Her mortal sleep dispell'd,
And life's new vigour tingling through her veins,
Instant she wakes, as from a raptured dream

Chased

Chased by the morn's soft whisper; and beholds,
With all the daughter rushing to her eyes,
Her father by her side. O what was then
His gush of joy, as to his bounding heart
He caught, he clasp'd her close! Not more the bliss
The patriot hero feels, whose lifted arm
Guards his loved Prince, while round his country's coasts
Invasion's hovering harpies scream for prey:
Not more his bliss when, sheath'd the hallow'd steel
(It's work of glory done, and in the dust
Th' insulting foe laid low) with honest toil,
'Mid the dear pledges of domestic love,
He tills the fields his unbought valour saved.'

This poem was intended as a competition for a Seatonian prize: but, not being sent in time, it was excluded from the lists.

If Mr. W. has disappointed us in this composition, he has made us ample recompence by presenting us with the poetical productions of Miss Caroline Symmons, the amiable and astonishing subject of the annexed Memoir; who displayed, when she was only eleven years old, a brilliancy of invention, and a harmony of numbers, "little less than miraculous," and who may fairly be classed among the prodigies of early genius. This young lady, the daughter of the Rev. Dr. Charles Symmons, was born on the 12th of April 1789, and died of a decline on the 1st of June 1803. A life so prematurely terminated can afford but few incidents: but it is surprising that it should have marked its transient meteor-like existence here by so many corruscations of elegant thought and reflection. Had not a solemn assurance been given us by Dr. Symmons, that these poems "were in the strictest sense her own, having received no improvements or heightenings from the suggestions of any person whatever;" we should have suspected that they had been touched and re-touched by the parent's classical pen: but, after such a declaration, from so respectable a man, we cannot feel the least hesitation in admitting them to be the genuine compositions of the young lady to whom they are ascribed. The first two poems are dated October 21st, and November 24th, 1800. We present the latter to our readers:

'ZELIDA;

'AND THE FADED ROSE-BUSH WHICH GREW NEAR HER TOMB.

'I gazed on the rose-bush, I heaved a sad sigh,
And mine eyelid was gemm'd with a tear:
Oh! let me, I cried, by my ZELIDA lie;
For all that I value sleeps here.

'Her sweetness, simplicity, virtue, and charms
Could with nought but a seraph's compare:
Ah! now, since my ZELIDA's torn from my arms,
There is nothing I love but despair.

'This rose tree once flourish'd, and sweeten'd the air;
Like it's blossom, all lovely she grew:
The scent of her breath, as it's fragrance, was rare;
And her cheeks were more fresh than it's hue.

'She planted, she loved it, she dew'd it's gay head;
And it's bloom every rival defied.
But, alas! what was beauty or virtue soon fled:
—In spring they both blossom'd and died.

'And now for my bosom this life has no charms;
I feel all it's troubles, and care:
For, since my dear ZELIDA's rent from my arms,
There is nothing I love but despair.'

A few days afterward, or on the 27th, 28th and 29th of the same November, she produced the following Sonnets:

'ON A BLIGHTED ROSE BUD.

'Scarce had thy velvet lips imbibed the dew,
And nature hail'd thee infant queen of *May*;
Scarce saw thine opening bloom the sun's broad ray,
And to the air thy tender fragrance threw:

'When the north-wind enamour'd of thee grew,
And by his cold rude kiss thy charms decay.
Now droops thine head, now fades thy blushing hue;
No more the queen of flowers, no longer gay.

'So blooms a maid, her guardian's health and joy,
Her mind arrayed in innocency's vest;
When suddenly, impatient to destroy,
Death clasps the virgin to his iron breast.
She fades—the parent, sister, friend deplore
The charms and budding virtues now no more *.'

'WRITTEN IN WINTER.

'Aërial FLORA, sister of the spring,
Arise, and let thy blooming form be seen:
Haste! play thy youthful fancies on the green,
And from thy hand ambrosial odours fling.

'Invite the sylvan choir to wake and sing,
While the sun sleeps in gold upon the scene:
To dress the grove thy clustering hare bell bring,
And chase hoar winter with thy sprightly mien.

'Then shall sweet zephyrs and prolific showers
Succeed to parching winds, and beating rain;
With their soft balm re-animate the flowers,
And strew gay cowslips o'er the golden plain.
Then frost no more shall waste the roseate bowers;
But FLORA, crown'd with sweets, her sway unhurt maintain.'

'ON SPRING.

'Throned on soft clouds, his locks with hawthorn bound
Twined with young rose-buds, jocund Spring appears:
The little violet by his smile he cheers,
And teaches primroses to bloom around.

* 'These beautiful lines are to be inscribed upon her omb.'

'To

'To his pleased ear the birds their carol sound,
And near his feet it's head the sweet-briar rears:
Nature exults to see her darling crown'd,
And all the living scene his power reveres.

'The hill and valley with bright verdure spread,
The infant CERES in her verdant gown,
The various plants which open in the mead,
And fanning gales his genial presence own:
But soon the rage of summer shall succeed;
And scorch the sweets, which breathe in Spring's soft lap alone.'

Other pieces equally surprizing, considering the very tender years of the writer, are given to the public: but we shall not plunder this hive of virgin honey farther than by inserting the last poem of this collection, addressed, in the February previous to the writer's death, to Lady Lucy Foley, on her birth day. (Feb. 14.) In this composition, Miss Symmons evidently bore in mind Pope's Elegy to the Memory of an Unfortunate Lady:

'No morn now blushes on th' enamour'd sight,
No genial sun now warms the torpid lay:
Since *February* sternly check'd his ray,
When LUCY's eyes first beam'd their azure light.

'*What, though no vernal flowers my hand invite*
To crop their fragrance for your natal day;
LUCY! for you the snow-drop and the bay
Shall blend th' unfading green and modest white.

'Though on your natal day, with aspect bleak,
Stern winter frown in icy garments drest;
Still may the rosy summer robe your cheek,
And the green spring still bud within your breast:
Till, the world fading on your closing eyes,
You find a golden autumn in the skies.'

Who could know such a charming young creature, and not blot the page devoted to her memory with a tear? We honour Mr. W. for the warmth and sensibility displayed in the execution of this office of friendship: but we should have been better pleased if he had performed it with less apparent affectation. The quotation from Young's Vth Night, applied to Miss S. is beautiful:

"Early, bright, transient, chaste as morning dew,
She sparkled, was exhaled, and went to heaven:"

but his own representation of her being '*whispered* by God's "still small voice" to her crown of glory' is the reverse of sublime.

Art. 31. *The Plea for a private Indulgence of Grief.* A Poem. By J**n D***n, D.D. Addressed to the Hon. P**l***p B**v**ie, in August, 1774. 8vo. 1s. Cadell and Davies.

We apprehend that this small tract proceeds from the pen of our old acquaintance, the venerable and respectable Dr. Duncan. It appears that he is aware that the elegy is confined and monotonous in its sentiments, as proceeding from an uniform train of emotions; and

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he would not have placed himself in the situation of imploring the indulgence of the public, had he not lately found several mutilated MS. copies of the poem before us: but to prevent the disgrace of incorrect poetry, he has sent it to the press. The subject is the loss of a most amiable wife, whose death was an overwhelming affliction to Dr. D. His grief is indeed strongly expressed. but it is often inharmonious and obscure, and sometimes incorrect. Plunged by affliction into deep retirement, for the purpose of venting his sorrows, the poet is upbraided by his honorable friend, for its intemperate indulgence. He begins by repeating the charge exhibited against him:

> " *Averse, thou say'st, from gloom, no less than strife,*
> " *Of temper social, cheerful, now recluse,*
> " *To pleasure lost, I rob my waning life,*
> " *Of harmony, enjoyment, lustre, use.*"

In the stanzas which follow, intended for the poet's justification, we see the traces of a good and feeling heart, though the poetical charms are not exquisite. Let the following shew that Dr. D.'s muse must be satisfied with moderate praise:

> ' Has aught the converse of the vacant throngs,
> Jocund, or dull, in sympathy with me?
> To them a breast at ease and cold belongs.
> B**v**IE, a warm one, yet unhurt, to thee.
>
> ' So suit the graver tones of melancholy
> My present mood, wit, learning, mirth itself,
> Unfeeling all, are tasteless, heartless folly,
> Harsh as the jars of the dull sons of pelf.
>
> ' Yet beats this heart at unison with thine.
> Midst kindred worthies plac'd, a noble groupe,
> All with one soul enliven'd, pure, benign,
> Could I, thus blest as thou, in lonely silence droop?'

Mo-y.

Art. 32. *On Earth Peace;* An Invocation, addressed to Truth upon a great Event near at Hand. 8vo. 3d. Cadell and Davies.

This poem, which does not sufficiently explain itself, is the production also of Dr. D. who, with a *detur venia*, sets himself down eighty-four years old. This veteran thus commences the present invocation:

> ' Truth, with love-tempered awe, we attend to thy voice;
> In the smiles of our conscience, and thine, we rejoice.
> All thy laws we respect, with delight we approve,
> From int'rest, from duty, religion and love.'

If in the subsequent part we complain of obscurity, we hope that Dr. D. will forgive us. What means ' *the arch-chymical sky* ?'

D.º

EDUCATION.

Art. 33. *A Visit to a Farm-House*, or an Introduction to various Subjects connected with Rural Economy. Embellished with Plates. By S. W. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Tabart and Co.

Children will be amused and instructed by this little volume; since it

it explains, in a manner well adapted to young capacities, and in language which is very plain and simple, the common occurrences and economy of rural life. It will, particularly, be a very useful and agreeable present for those who are brought up in London, and are little acquainted with the pursuits and occupations of the country. Mans

Art. 34. *The Wonders of the Microscope*; or an Explanation of the Wisdom of the Creator in Objects comparatively minute, adapted to the understanding of young Persons: with 5 large Copper Plates. 12mo. 2s. 6d. half bound. Tabart and Co.

This epitome of a very interesting portion of natural philosophy, in which the author confessedly borrows assistance from Dr. Hooke, will be found an amusing and instructive companion for young people. It will give them a general idea of the subject, sufficient to excite a desire of making it their study on a larger scale; and it is rendered the more acceptable by the seasonable reflections which are interspersed, on the wisdom of Providence, and his bountiful provision for the various works of his creation. Do.

Art. 35. *The Travels of Rolando*; containing, in a supposed Tour round the World, authentic Descriptions of the Geography, Natural History, Manners, and Antiquities of various Countries. Translated from the French of L. F. Jauffret. 12mo. 4 vols. 12s. Half bound. R. Phillips.

The judicious plan, which was so successfully adopted by the Abbé Barthélémy, in his Travels of Anacharsis, for introducing young persons to a knowlege of the topography and customs of antient Greece, may undoubtedly be applied in the formation of a more extensive tour. Though the Travels of Rolando will not bear a comparison with that excellent work, they are useful and instructive in many particulars respecting the countries visited in the tour: but they are of a more superficial nature; and from the want of references to authorities from which the accounts are borrowed, they have a greater air of fiction, and are less likely to make a lasting impression. The work itself is incomplete: but the translator proposes to continue her labours* as soon as the materials shall be furnished. Moral and religious reflections are happily blended with this agreeable narrative; and we rather think that they proceed principally from the pen of the translator; whose piety and good principles appear, from this circumstance, in a very conspicuous and commendable point of view. Do

Art. 36. *Dictionary of polite Literature*; or fabulous History of the Heathen Gods and Illustrious Heroes, with 28 Plates. 18mo. 2 vols. 13s. Boards. Scatchard and Co.

These two volumes are of a very convenient size for a juvenile library; and although the accounts are necessarily concise, they will be generally found to convey, with sufficient accuracy, the information which is required on these subjects for young readers. The editor has availed himself of Spence's Polymetis, and other works of good authority, and has comprised a great variety of articles in this judi-

* We apprehend that Miss Aikin, daughter of Dr. A., has favoured the English public with this work.

cious

cious compilation. The plates are in general neatly executed, and give a dressed and pleasing appearance to the dictionary.

Man.

TRAVELS.

Art. 37. *Observations on a short Tour made in the Summer of* 1803, *to the Western Highlands of Scotland,* interspersed with original Pieces of Descriptive and Epistolary Poetry. 12mo. pp. 208. 4s. Boards. Sael and Co. 1804.

These observations, according to a hackneyed protestation, were not originally destined for the public eye, being simply noted down for the amusement of the author and that of his friends: but, it is added, 'the writer of this small volume considered that there was something of novelty in the mixture of original poetry with the prose in his narrative; and he was willing to hope that this circumstance alone might recommend his book to the attention of those, who are pleased with poetical descriptions of nature.' We are likewise reminded that various changes in manners, dress, language, and sentiment may take place in a country, within the short space of thirty years, and that the minutest accounts of the ablest writers will always leave room for subsequent inquiries. The inquiries of the present traveller, however, are in one place said to relate chiefly to the state of the roads and inns; while, in another, we are assured that amusement, not instruction, is his principal aim. We are moreover repeatedly told, without ceremony, that if we do not like his book, we may let it alone. After all these intimations, it would be highly unreasonable to expect a well connected and copious relation: yet the author's remarks, though seldom important, or sufficiently circumstantial, are not often erroneous, and his verses sometimes rise above mediocrity.

A few mis-statements require to be corrected.—Though an additional story would give to Inverary Castle a more imposing and ducal aspect, the building, in its present state, by no means deserves the epithets of *mean* and *paltry*.—That the seal defends himself by pelting stones at his adversary is not very credible, even though a clergyman of Dundee should put his *seal* to the testimony.—The establishment of parochial schools is incorrectly noted. The law provides one for every parish; the rich, as well as the poor, may avail themselves of this beneficial institution; and the teaching is neither gratuitous, nor limited to English and Gaelic.—Church livings are not solely in the gift of landowners and universities: but the right of presentation to many is vested in the crown. In large towns, the corporation usually exercises that right, and in a very few instances, the session, or ecclesiastical court of the parish. The church patronage of the universities is very limited, as may be seen by looking into a Scottish almanac.—The intervening country between *Hawic* and *Langholm* is peculiarly dreary and comfortless: yet to our observer it proved 'very pleasing;' while the real beauties which occur between Langholm and Longtown, particularly the finely wooded banks of the Esk, are passed in silence.—We confess, moreover, that we are little enamoured of the severe strictures on Mr. Hume. His writings at least contributed to stimulate genius

and

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and diligence in the investigation of those truths which can never suffer from ample inquiry and unreserved discussion.

This volume is by no means free from errors of the press. Thus we remark *Nearer* for *Near*, *Tyne* for *Fyne*, *Trenton* for *Renton*, *Greenoch* for *Greenock*, &c. &c. &c

That we may not, however, appear to be churlish or splenetic, we shall extract one or two of the most interesting passages.

'We proceeded along a well cultivated country towards Lanerk; but two or three miles on this side of the town we turned out of the road, to the very delightful seat of Lady Ross, in order to take a view of the celebrated falls of the Clyde. Every thing about this place discovers the elegance, the taste, and the great liberality of the possessor. A natural curiosity of this kind ought not to be shut out from the inspection of the public; and it seems that the present proprietor fully entertains these sentiments; for the walks and resting-places about the falls of the Clyde are so contrived, as to give the most favourable opportunity of seeing them to advantage. The view from the seat under the summer-house is perhaps the most striking. Were it not impossible to describe the beauty of this scenery, I should willingly attempt it. Though the waters were at their lowest at the season of the year in which we saw them, yet they exhibited a species of beauty of which I can convey no idea to the reader; and the cavern into which they fell is tremendous to look down upon. The frittering of the water as it breaks upon the rocks, the distance to which it is thrown forwards, the snowy whiteness of it, and the mist which fills the air, while the waves are reverberated from the gulph beneath, together with the incessant din and roar of their falling present a spectacle to the astonished spectator which is at once as sublime and as beautiful as the imagination can conceive. To make the view the more striking, you are placed in the centre of the finest amphitheatre of wood that I ever contemplated. Nor is the scenery confined to one spot; but is extended for more than a mile. The name of this fall is Corra-Linn. There is another very noble one above it, which is called Bonniton; this is very grand and majestic, but inferior, in my mind, to the other; though some have thought it more tremendous in its appearance. The scenery around it is not so good, nor the falls so extended, nor the cauldron beneath it half so magnificent, or so dreadful. As one abrupt descent of the water it may be superior to Corra Linn. I could not leave this place without attempting to convey some feeble idea of it to the reader in verse. I am sensibile that the lines are very unworthy of the subject; and if they were much better than they are, they would be so still. Such as they are, the reader is welcome to them; and if he does not choose to read them, he has my permission to pass them.

'Here let me stand and gaze, where deaf'ning Clyde
O'er rocks precipitates his roaring tide:
If no strong barrier checks his sable flood
In peace he steals along the silent wood;
But some bold threat'ning crag should nature rear,
And seem to cry, "here stop thy proud career,"
Around th' obstructing mole he frets and raves,
And, like a lion, summons all his waves;

With

With wrath he foams, and rends the solid mass,
And, as he rages, finds or makes his pass;
With headlong madness tears his angry way,
And the rude caverns lashes with his spray;
From rock to rock his tumbling torrent falls,
And thund'ring shakes these ever-during walls;
Thro' yawning cliffs the struggling waters wind,
And gain new fury in their course confin'd;
Then prone descend in one wide sheet of snow,
And boil and bellow in the depths below.
But oh! how beauteous would this scene appear,
E'en if no Clyde with roaring floods were here;
How grand, how awful are these rocks around,
Their bases bare, with wood their summits crown'd;
High o'er the stream they rear their brows sublime,
And stand eternal midst the wrecks of Time;
On these proud tow'rs I take my station sure,
And scarcely feel myself on rocks secure!
So far beneath the maddening water toils,
And, dashing, back upon itself recoils;
Appals the senses with its horrid noise,
And makes us tremble amidst all our joys.

'After we had satisfied ourselves with viewing the falls from several stations contrived for the purpose, the gardener, who attended us, shewed us the hot-houses; and as we had before seen all that was beautiful in unadorned nature, we here saw nature highly improved and forwarded by art. The finest clusters of grapes hung perfectly ripe over our heads, and seemed almost ready to fall into our mouths. In another department were peaches and plumbs just in perfection. Several of the peaches had fallen upon the ground. The gardener picked up two, and gave them to us. They were very delicious; but tended rather to give us an appetite for more, than to satisfy us with what we had tasted.

'About the falls of the river I observed on the banks lillies of the vale, which seemed to grow perfectly wild; and in other parts abundance of columbines, which appeared to be the spontaneous production of the soil. If happiness depended upon situation, lady Ross would certainly possess it; for she has every luxury around her which art or nature can bestow. The beauty of the scenery defies all the powers of description and language. Even the pencil of Lorraine could never do it justice.'—

'There was one circumstance, which I observed in all Scotland, in public and in private houses, and though it is a very trifling one, yet as it is characteristic of the manners of the country I cannot help noticing it. In every bed-chamber the clothes of the bed were turned half-way down. This I never once saw in England, and never but once saw it omitted in Scotland. Whether it is done to shew that one is welcome to one's lodging, or from a supposition that an Englishman does not know the way into a Scotch bed, I cannot say; but the custom is singular, and at the same time universal throughout the north. As to the manners of the Scotch in the lower orders of the people, it would

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would be difficult for persons travelling with our expedition to form a correct opinion. But as far as we could judge, the labouring part of the community seemed to be very lazy and indolent. We seldom met a cart, where the driver was not stretched at full length upon it, and sometimes asleep. The women are compelled to work hard in hoeing potatoes, and weeding the corn, while the men lie snoring in the furrows. But perhaps with proper encouragements to industry, and with some prospect of advancing their circumstances in life, and reaping the due rewards of their labour, these people might become very active and industrious.'

If the author should still require to be comforted, we can only refer him to the blooming and melting dames of Caledonia; one of whom wept at his departure, and another 'modestly inclined her face forwards to receive his salute.' Happy the Traveller who can exclaim, *Veni, vidi, vici!*

Muir.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 38. *A Short Account of John Marriott*, including Extracts from his Letters. To which are added some of his Poetical Productions. Crown 8vo. pp. 200 3s. 6d Boards. W. Phillips.

The author of these poems, and the subject of the brief memoir prefixed, was one of the society of *Friends*, or of the people commonly called Quakers. We are not informed what trade or occupation he pursued: but, from the testimonies before us, it is evident that he was a good man, and "acted well his part" during the narrow span of his earthly existence. His annals furnish little that will generally interest, though they may be gratifying to the members of his own persuasion. A short abstract will comprize their sum and substance.

'John Marriott was born at Edgend, a small village near Colne in Lancashire, in the year 1762. He had a guarded and religious education, his mother, in particular, being solicitous for the improvement and happiness of her children. As he possessed an excellent understanding, he made a rapid progress in learning, and acquired a considerable knowledge of the Greek and Latin languages. His mind was early stored with much general and useful information. He was of a mild and amiable disposition, which, combined with other excellent qualities, gained him many friends, and rendered him very generally esteemed and beloved. From a child, he was of a thoughtful and serious turn of mind, which, as he attained to riper years, was heightened by some severe afflictions, particularly by a disappointment in an attachment which he had early formed for an amiable young woman.

'He possessed great sensibility of mind, and a very considerable poetick talent; this he cultivated, and often indulged himself in composing short pieces, which were always innocent, and often calculated to promote just sentiments, and the cause of piety and virtue.'—

'He spent much of his time in a little wilderness near his habitation. Many of the arbours in it were formed by himself; and a number of his inscriptions on the trees remain to the present day. Here he wrote many of those poetical effusions which accorded so naturally with the situation, and which cherished that soft and pensive disposi-

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tion which he loved to indulge. But his life was not spent in useless occupation. He was a good member of society, a most affectionate relative, and a kind and sympathizing friend to the poor.'—

'In the year 1795, John Marriott was united to Ann Wilson, an amiable and worthy young woman. They lived together in great harmony, and with the prospect of a continuance of solid comfort: but no enjoyments here, not even those which are founded on virtue, are secure from interruption and alloy. About two years after their marriage he was afflicted with a painful disorder, which continued to increase till it terminated in his dissolution; and he left behind him a mournful widow, and a little boy about two years old.

'Early in life, his mind had been impressed with religious considerations, which continued with him, and were solidly improved towards the end of his days. For several years preceding his death, he had been considerably engaged in business, which occupied a great portion of his time and attention: by some expressions, made in his last illness, it appears that he regretted the occupation of so much of his precious time in temporal concerns, as having, in some degree, diverted his mind from objects of superior importance.'

'He quietly departed about ten o'clock the 11th of the 8th month (August) 1797.'

His letters display, with much seriousness, a considerable portion of religious melancholy, expressed in language which to the common reader will seem peculiar, viz. 'if mankind were but deeply sensible of the necessity of *knowing a ceasing from man*'—'how loath is the first birth to be abridged of its share of satisfaction!' He frequently said that his afflictions were small in comparison of what he deserved. 'His mind was clothed with deep poverty, and engaged in humble breathings to the Father of Mercies, that a preparation for his final change might be mercifully experienced.' From the turn and disposition of such a mind, playful and exhilirating poetry could not be expected; and Mr. Marriott's Muse is serious, plaintive, and humane. Writing not for fame, but merely to amuse himself and a few friends, he is intitled to some indulgence in a court of criticism, into which he is brought against his own consent. In answer to the flattery of a friend, he says;

'The world is captious—ah my friend, forbear,
Nor think the Muse could keep the doubtful field,
No conscious worth her drooping heart to chear,
No wit to embolden, and no sense to shield.

'No—in the noiseless valley let her stray,
Safe from the conflicts of a loftier sphere;
Pleas'd, if with smiles a gentle few survey,
And village maidens join their praise sincere.'

Among these specimens of Quaker poetry, those who are acquainted with the benevolent sentiments professed by *Friends* will not be surprised to find an Ode to Philanthropy, and verses reprobating war. We shall copy a passage from the latter, by which the author's merit may be appreciated:

'War

'War first, and war's black brood, a hideous train
Of crimes and horrors, claim the upbrading strain;
Sad argument, and irksome to the mind
That loves the brotherhood of human-kind,
Though wit in every age, intent to shew
What wonders fiction's fairy wand can do,
With all its gems the dismal theme has crowned
And cast a false, pernicious glory round:
History indeed so oft the tale repeats
Of human quarrels, victories and defeats,
Displays such schemes by human hearts conceived,
Records such deeds by human hands achieved,
As made even heathens, conscious of the crimes
That christians boast of, sigh for better times;
Their glimmering reason from such deeds of hate
Proved man degenerate from his first estate:
But history, like her sister, loath to thwart
The favourite passions of the ambitious heart,
Even now, the christian test rejecting, tries
By maxims false each martial enterprize,
Nay, swoln with arrogance, by malice driven,
Derides the doctrine of the Lord from heaven!
'Come then, sweet poesy, be thou the first
With all thy skill, to check the inhuman thirst;
Much guilt thou hast to expiate, many a line
Unhallowed, offered at oppression's shrine:
Exalt thy prospects, be what heaven designed
Thou shouldest be—sweet instructress of mankind;
Such as thou wast when Israel's tuneful king
To heights unrivalled raised thy heaven-ward wing;
That if an angel pass, thou needest not fear
The blameless warblings should offend his ear:
O, never more illume a guilty day,
Nor strew thy garments in a hero's way,
The pearl of praise reserve for purer themes,
Deeds that nor taint the air, nor tinge the streams,
Actions unhaunted by the vulture's cry,
And such as leave the cheeks of mothers dry.'

Under the circumstances of the case, we do not feel ourselves justified in exercising any sternness of criticism. We shall only therefore remark that, however Mr. M. may have been gifted by the Muses, his ear was deficient in correctness, and his rhymes are often faulty. Errors of the press are noticed: but the following line

'A poor *lymphatic* through thy woodland stray'

is not marked as containing a most egregious blunder. Moy.

Art. 39. *A Defence of the Character and Conduct of the late Mary Wollstonecraft Godwin*, founded on Principles of Nature and Reason, as applied to the peculiar Circumstances of her Case; in a Series of Letters

Letters to a Lady. Crown 8vo. pp. 160. 3s. 6d. Boards. Wallis.

We agree with this apologist that there are certain points in Mrs. Wollstonecraft's conduct, over which the generous heart would desire to throw an oblivious shade; and for this reason we shall excuse ourselves the ungracious task of examining the merits of this defence, which is erected on the position 'that extraordinary Geniuses are not to be estimated by common rules, but are Planets that must be reviewed upon their own principles.' Putting this observation into plain English, it means that persons calling themselves great Geniuses have a rule of morality of their own, and may live as they like without meriting censure. We are too old fashioned to admit any such privilege in favour of Genius, and must consider that defence as lame which proceeds on such an assumption.

Mon.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We received with pleasure the anonymous letter, on the subject of Sir W. Jones's memoirs; and if the paper, to which the writer alludes, does not occur in Lord Teignmouth's volume, we shall thank him to fulfil his offer of transmitting it to us.

It appears to us that the expression, which is the subject of D. C——l's letter, is a Latinism, referring to the gender of the noun; an allusion not sanctioned by the rules of our language, but very likely to occur to the classical mind of the great poet.

The representation of *Anti-hypercritikistos* is taken with the good humour with which it seems to have been made: but we had previously detected the error to which it relates.

The discussion proposed by *Agricola* is adapted to the pages of a Magazine, but forms no part of our office.

☞ At p. 378. l. 26. of this Review, the reader is requested to erase the word *spurious*, which was there inserted through inadvertence.

*** The *Appendix* to this Volume of the Review will be published with the Number for January.

Errors, pp. 352, 378, 409, 418, 430, 439.

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APPENDIX

TO THE

FORTY-FIFTH VOLUME

OF THE

MONTHLY REVIEW

ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Voyage dans les quatre principales Isles*, &c.; *i. e.* Travels in the four principal Islands of the African Seas, performed by Order of the Government, during the Years nine and ten of the Republic (1801 and 1802), with a Narrative of the Passage of Captain *Baudin* to Port Louis in the Mauritius. By J. B G. M. BORY DE ST. VINCENT, Officer of the Staff, and Chief Naturalist on board *Le Naturaliste* Sloop of War, in the Expedition of Discovery commanded by Captain *Baudin*. With a Series of 58 Plates, large Quarto, engraved from Drawings taken on the Spot, by the Author. 3 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1804. Imported by De Boffe. Price 4l. 4s. sewed.

IT would be happy for the world, if most Governments were as ambitious of describing as of subjugating the various portions of our habitable globe;—if they were as solicitous to acquire and propagate those principles of knowlege and humanity, which are so eminently conducive to the welfare of the species, as they are in general ready to engage in baneful competition for the extension of territory, or the preservation of usurped dominion. Impressed as we are with these sentiments, it would have afforded us sincere pleasure to have reported M. *Baudin*'s expedition among the few which have been undertaken from the pure motives of enlarging science, and benefiting mankind: but the narrative before us warrants no such favourable interpretation. The objects of the undertaking are not previously stated, nor are the commander's instructions laid before the public. M. BORY DE ST. VINCENT even affects an air of mystery with respect to his own mission,

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and arraigns the ignorance and misconduct of the gentleman under whom he served. We pretend not to unveil the arcana of the French Government, nor to conjecture what designs might be concealed under the mask of a voyage of discovery. Neither is it our province to criticize personal character: but, if it were, we could wish to be guided by the trite but equitable maxim, so congenial to the honest feelings of an Englishman, *Hear both parties.* Referring, therefore, the author's charges, and M. *Baudin's* defence, to the rightful tribunal, we shall proceed to notice the present publication merely as a literary and scientific production; only premising that the multiplicity and variety of the details cannot be pressed within our narrow limits.

The gentlemen of the expedition, eighteen of whom were attached to the *Naturaliste*, and fifteen to the *Geographe*, in the capacity of officers or men of science, rendezvoused at *Havre de Grace.* There the author joined them, and soon became delighted with the amiable manners and solid acquirements of his associates. The books provided for their use were neither numerous nor properly selected; and M. DE ST. VINCENT unfortunately never received an appropriate collection, which M. *de Lacépède* had the goodness to address to him. These untoward circumstances, however, seem not to have excited immoderate regret. With the view of gratifying his enthusiastic desire of visiting remote countries, the author had, through the mediation of a friend, procured his nomination to the place of first zoologist to the expedition; and he manifested a laudable anxiety to *see* rather than to *read.* 'The luxury of quotation,' says he, 'should be reserved for works of a different complexion, in which *I have seen* is an expression that amounts not to evidence.'

The two corvettes sailed about the month of October 1801. In fifteen days, they reached Teneriffe, without having observed a single fish. 'Commodore Byron, (says the writer,) in his voyage round the world, likewise remarks that, in the course of the same track, he saw none, and he ascribes the circumstance to the copper sheathing of his vessel. This opinion has obtained some credit among sea-faring people; yet, as several of the finny tribe made their appearance between Teneriffe and the Isle of France, I doubt much whether the copper of our bottom kept them at a distance on our passage from Havre to the Canaries.'

A residence of eleven days at Teneriffe enabled the naturalists to extend and multiply their researches in various directions. Urgent reasons, however, which the author is unwilling to disclose, prevented their ascent to the peak: but their various excursions, and their frequent interviews with the celebrated

Broussonet,

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Broussonet, who is stationed on the island in the office of commissary of commercial relations, furnish us with many interesting notices. For several additional particulars, at which the author only glances, he refers to another work of his own, intitled '*Essays on the Fortunate Islands.*' From the statements inserted in his journal, it appears that the soil of Teneriffe is wholly composed of volcanic matter, or of some of its modifications; presenting in certain districts the most unequivocal traces of a series of eruptions, which must have taken place at long intervals; in others displaying basalts and lavas, from the hardest and most compact, to the most porous and friable. The very sand and cultivated ground consist of the lavas of the island reduced to extreme minuteness by friction. 'Of an ounce of coarse black sand, taken up in the road of Sainte-Croix, eight-tenths were basaltic fragments, like the grains of coarse gun-powder; one-tenth and a half consisted of reddish particles, apparently the *debris* of puzzolana; and the remaining half-tenth, of small crystals, which, I presume, were of the nature of chrysolite.'—'The arable land abounds in volcanic rocks, and presents, in almost every direction, little else than lava reduced to powder, more or less attenuated.'

The bare and arid aspect of the rocky country is well contrasted with the more favoured spots, which smile in all the luxury of a Southern vegetation, and in all the freshness of perpetual spring. On entering the forest of Laguna, the author avows his inability to delineate the impressions which this rich woodland-scene stamped on his mind:

'What a precious service should I render to my readers, could I transfuse into their bosoms the delightful sensations which I experienced, when reposing under those beautiful tufted trees, which were never stripped of their foliage!—trees interwoven with fragrant vegetables, whose gay attire is respected even by winter, and that shade a surface covered with verdant mosses and elegant ferns, which a burning sun cannot parch! Fresh flowers, glowing in their prime at the end of October, and the peace and silence of this enchanting spot, interrupted only by the warbling of Canary birds, and the cooing of ring-doves, transported me with admiration. I saw, for the first time, abandoned to themselves, those plants of warm countries, which languish in the artificial temperature of our hot houses. One would suppose that Tasso had in his eye the peaceful forest of Laguna, when he speaks of the Fortunate Islands, in which he places the Palace of Armida. "A delicious atmosphere," says he, "perfumed with flowers, is there refreshed by the zephyrs, whose constant and uniform breath receives not from the sun either agitation or repose. There summer darts no fiery beams, winter is not armed in ice, nor do the clouds ever break the serenity of the sky. Flowers, ever new,

gracefully wave on turf of a lasting green, and the trees preserve an eternal foliage."

Some of the prevailing trees and plants of this forest are, *Laurus Indica*, *L. nobilis*, *Myrica Faya*, *Prunus Lusitanicæ*, *Ilex Perado*, *Digitalis Canariensis*, *Dracocephalum Canariense*, *Cacalia albifrons*, *Convolvulus Canariensis*, &c. Here the author properly adverts to the botanical prejudice which would banish the cryptogamic plants to the colder latitudes. Mosses and ferns abound in the Isles of France and Bourbon, which are situated in the torrid zone; and besides two non-descript hypna and several jungermanniæ, Teneriffe produces *Blechnum radicans*, *Trichomanes Canariensis*, *Asplenium adiantum nigrum*, *Asplenium latifolium*, *A. trichomanes*, *Polypodium filix mas*, and *P. aculeatum*.

We must leave these and other scientific particulars, however, that we may notice the history of the *Guanches*, the aboriginal inhabitants of the Canary Islands. Before the arrival of the Spaniards, this simple and virtuous people lived under the salutary restraints of a few equitable and respected laws. Teneriffe, which had long composed a separate state, acknowleged the authority of nine of their kings, or petty princes; who were clothed like their subjects, and distinguished from them only by a laurel crown, and the thigh-bone of one of their most renowned ancestors, which they bore at once as a sceptre and as a remembrancer of virtues that had secured the love and the regret of the people. Though they had a priest, who presided at certain ritual ceremonies, they appear to have had very imperfect notions of religion. Their mystical usages, of which baptism was one, were supposed to have been derived from some more enlightened people, whose memory had perished. The state in which several of their mummies have been found in their respective grottos, or catacombs, attests their rude attempts to embalm their dead. They expressed numerical signs by small pieces of baked clay; and they were ignorant of the use of metals. Though legitimate and peaceful possessors of the island, and though they bravely resisted the oppression of the invaders, they were cruelly put to death in detail, and at length exterminated. Their pretended descendants, who live about Guimar, and who make a procession on Candlemas-day, in the old national costume, are supposed to be a spurious race; or a tribe of impostors, who are countenanced by government, to favour the popular belief that they are a remnant snatched from the error of their ways.—The eventful story of the once happy *Guanches* is amply related in the author's former work; to which, accordingly, he refers his readers.

In

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In the trip from Teneriffe to the Isle of France, the *Naturaliste* encountered some heavy gales, which greatly injured her rigging, and incommoded the crew: but the journalist declines describing a storm; which, as he justly observes, has become a common theme in every book of voyages, and in almost every romance. We may add that, if he really possesses the powers of bold and general painting, he very rarely employs them. He delineates, on the contrary, detached parcels of sea or land with apparent accuracy and precision, and fondly dwells on their numerous specific productions. Hence arises our embarrassment in attempting to convey any adequate notions of the substance and manner of his relation, otherwise than by a partial sketch of the contents, and occasional extracts from a few of the prominent passages. They who are desirous of more satisfactory information must have recourse to the work, which is highly worthy of the considerate perusal of every naturalist. The author's circumstantial recitals bear ample testimony to the closeness and constancy of his observation. Even when at sea, he collected many curious and lively remarks on the appearance and habits of the flying fish, porpoise, dolphin, pilot-fish, &c. and beguiled his leisure by watching the movements of the more humble and sluggish mollusca.

'On the 6th, during the calm of the morning, we observed to pass alongside that creature which the sailors call *galley-fish*, and which Linné has very improperly denominated *Holoturia physalis*. It consists of a sort of transparent bladder, of a considerable size, and of a fine rose-colour, inclining to purple, with a keel (if we may so call it,) formed in festoons, and plaited like a ruff, on the upper part. By raising this appendage above water, it makes it serve the purpose of a sail. A multitude of feelers proceed from the under side, and enable it either to seize and devour its prey, or to *cast anchor*, and fix itself on the moving surface of the waves. This animal is extremely venomous. At this moment, we could not lay hold of a single specimen: but another beautiful mollusca, which I fished alongside, consoled me for the disappointment. The extreme delicacy of this creature's *tentacula* is, doubtless, the cause of the defective manner in which it has been hitherto known and figured. Linné had already described a part of a species of the same genus, under the designation of *Medusa porpites*. I deem it incumbent on me to add to the history of the *porpites*, all my observations which relate to them, together with an accurate plate.

'In general, during calm weather, the smooth and transparent sea, to a considerable depth, is filled with innumerable animals, which are visible to a person who has acquired the habit of looking for them, but which are not, at first, easily distinguished, on account of their transparency. Most of these *vermes* are scarcely known to naturalists. *Bosc*, in his passage from Bourdeaux to North America, observed a

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great number; which I have likewise seen, and which, with many non-descripts, might swell the present work. In an account of a voyage, however, it is sufficient to quote the most interesting; which, accordingly, we shall do, as opportunity may offer.'

A few days afterward, several individuals of a new mollusc genus were likewise caught. Their body is cylindrical, of a firmish consistency, attenuated at one of the extremities, transparent, and somewhat yellowish. Its whole substance is full of small grains of a deeper yellow, while the exterior surface is covered with unequal tubercles of the same nature with the rest of the body. Its only indication of life was a slight degree of swelling, when molested: its length seldom exceeds five inches, and its thickness an inch; and it is inclosed in a covering, or sheath. In outward appearance, it resembles Muller's *Holoturia elegans*. As it emits very luminous scintillations during the night, the author has designed it *monophora noctiluca*. Besides describing it in a note, by its discriminating characters, he has represented it in one of the plates.

M. B. DE ST. V.'s remarks on the phosphorescence of the sea are spirited and ingenious, and tend to prove that the phænomenon proceeds both from the water and from luciferous animals; the latter often exhibiting more vivid corruscations than the former.

Between the line and the Isle of France, other undescribed mollusca occurred; some of which are particularized and figured. In the same latitude, was found a new hyalæa, which swims on the water in the same manner as a Bombyx flies in the air. It was named *H. papilionacea*. For its characters and figure, we refer to the notes and plates.

'Of all the marine animals which fell into our possession, the most rare was certainly a mollusca, of which we never could procure another specimen. We had examined it for a long while before we discovered a shell as transparent as glass, with which it is furnished; and, ignorant at first of the existence of this covering, we had broken it in handling the animal. This circumstance is the more to be regetted, because the mollusca in question forms a new species of the beautiful genus *Carinaria*, which has hitherto consisted of only a single species, and that furnished with the most precious of sea-shells. I took a very accurate drawing of it, and named it *C. fragilis*.'

The inspecting physicians and surgeons scrupulously examined the crews of the vessels, on their arrival at the Isle of France. About fifteen years ago, one half of the islanders were carried off by the accidental introduction of the small-pox; since which disaster, the present regulations with respect to health have been strictly enforced. A safer and less troublesome preservative against the contagious scourge would be inoculation,

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inoculation, variolous or vaccine: but the inhabitants are decidedly averse to engrafting the virus in any form.

The dirt and nakedness of the negro slaves, and the dulness of trade, arising from the fluctuating state of European politics, affected the author with very disagreeable sensations. He states that the first sight of the island is far from inviting: but that strangers, who have resided in it for some time, leave it with regret, and revisit it with pleasure.

In the *streets* of the North-west port, (ci-devant *Port-Louis*,) M. DE ST. VINCENT, on his landing, culled a rich botanic repast; consisting of five or six species of *Sida*, several undescribed sorts of panic-grass, a *Galega*, *Cassia fœtida*, *Cleomè pentaphylla*, *Parthenium hysterophorus*, *Boerhavia erecta*, *B. diffusa*, *Amaranthus blitum*, *Andropogon contortum*, *Heliotropium Indicum*, *Cynosurus Indicus*, *Datura metel*, *Achyranthes aspera*, *Amaranthus spinosus*, &c.—The principal streets and squares are planted with the gaudy *Mimosa Lebbek*, *Cassia fistula*, and *Terminalia catalpa*.

We are informed that the appearance of the two corvettes had excited considerable suspicion among the colonists, who were by no means partial to M. *Baudin*. The author, however, bestows much praise on their kindness and hospitality, and laments that he could not comply with the numerous invitations with which he and his learned brethren were honoured.

The plains of Willems naturally suggest some sentimental reflections on the fate of Paul and Virginia, and on the eloquent and virtuous recorder of their story. From these we are again recalled, notwithstanding the author's precarious state of health, to various excursions, undertaken with the view of exploring the natural history of the country: but they were for some time interrupted on the appearance of Commodore Elphinstone's squadron, when M. B. DE ST. V. volunteered his services as a soldier.—On the re-establishment of the communication between the Isles of France and Bourbon, he procured an order from General *Magallon* to visit the latter. Here his details, relative to plants and volcanic productions, are again numerous, appropriate, and striking. The geological notices which are occasionally introduced, and the volcanic phænomena of the island, as they are exposed in these volumes, form an excellent supplement to the observations of *Dolomieu*, *Breislak*, and *Spallanzani*. The anomalous forms and various positions assumed by the basaltic substances, in the rocky ravines of the rivers, are particularly deserving of attention; and we doubt not that every unbiassed observer, who carefully studies these descriptions, and consults the plates, will assign to them an igneous origin. In fact, we are told that, whoever will give

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himself the trouble of visiting certain spots on the island may, in some measure, witness their formation.

'I have grouped in one plate, (says our enterprizing traveller,) several basaltic currents and veins, differently disposed, which occur in the same river, and which we shall also describe. The prisms of this first colonnade, of which the uppermost had suffered much more than that below it, are straight, or sometimes a little bent, and of a determinate thickness. They form a regular and very considerable series, the largest having five sides, and being perpendicular to the horizon, whereas the more slender are oblique. Wherever any of them have been broken, others are remarked behind them. The slope which is formed in front, by a great number of truncations, proves that many columns, which concealed those now exposed to view, have been destroyed by time, and dragged from their primitive positions.

'On the right-hand side of the ravine, the waters have made greater havock, scarcely respecting the forms of the volcanic strata, which disruptions and cascades have nearly effaced. Yet a careful observer may trace the same disposition of things as on the opposite side, where the columnar basaltic strata are multiplied, and assume a great elevation.

'In some places, the prismatic range is uninterrupted, and takes the bent form of a sheet of water which is just about to be precipitated in a fall. We may explain this disposition, by recollecting the moment when the basaltic paste still retained a certain degree of fluidity, advancing with a tardy progress, and following the inequalities of the soil. The prisms, which have resulted from the cooling of the mass, have preserved, besides their appropriate form, that which was impressed on them by the flowing of the lava; and as several of the basaltic streams, incumbent on each other, which now occupy our attention, had found, each in its turn, the surface of the soil differently intersected, we may thence account for those basalts and prisms which occur in their respective positions of perpendicular, straight, oblique, curved, and even horizontal, over the whole of Bourbon; and the formation of which it is difficult to conceive without adopting our explanation.'

The ascent to the plain of the *Chicots* affords various opportunities of contemplating a large volcanic field, striking and extensive prospects, and rare and beautiful plants. It is not, however, accomplished without much fatigue and some hazard. For the benefit of those who may encounter similar toils, we copy the subsequent hint:

'We first of all prepared coffee—a necessary article of refreshment for those who sleep on the ground, who are shivering with cold, and who are debarred the luxury of a savoury meal. It is a common practice in the Island of Reunion to take three, four, or even five dishes of coffee in the course of the day. The poorest hunters who pass a month in the woods, and who limit the rest of their portable equipage to so many rounds of powder and ball, a tobacco-pipe, and a steel, never dispense with coffee. They take it either without sugar, which

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which they call *bitter coffee*, or with honey, when they can find it; and then they call it *black coffee*—a beverage which they prize beyond all the strong liquors in the world. I, who am subject to frequent megrims, and who, notwithstanding my laborious marches, have scarcely ever experienced them on this island, ascribe my good fortune to my living like the Creoles, who are never troubled with them; and, in defiance of all the traducers of coffee, I have taken it copiously, and several times in a day.'

The most singular appearance on the plain of the *Chicots* is a basaltic pavement of great extent, composed of polygons of different dimensions, the largest measuring about *fifteen* feet in diameter.

During the next excursion, namely, from *St. Denis* to *la Riviere du Mât*, a solitary grotto thus feelingly recalls departed goodness:

'I was told that the spot had been thus embellished by M. *Dumorier*, whom I knew in the Isle of France, and who died only a few days after my arrival there. *Dumorier* had named this place *Julia's Grotto*, and had brought within its limited range almost every interesting plant which the island produces.

'If a lover of the sciences, if a friend of virtue, should visit the island which I describe, let him pause in Julia's grotto; and, seated beneath the cool canopy and fragrant foliage of entwining shrubs, let him remember that the man, who cherished and decked this arbour, withdrew into its shade, when he reflected on the means of being useful to his equals, and of improving the condition of the surrounding colonists; and he never quitted his retreat without meditating the performance of some good action.

'Amid the political storms which presided at the birth of the revolution, *Dumorier*, esteemed by all parties for his moderation and his great virtues, was named with citizens *Boucher* and *Lescalier*, as civil Commissioners for the French Government beyond the Cape of Good Hope. He performed his duties with that wisdom which characterized all his proceedings. At Bourbon, he fixed his residence, and there married a lady highly respectable for the qualities of her heart and of her understanding. While he prudently allowed the troubles of the revolution to ferment at a distance, he ceased not to cherish its principles, and to reprobate its enormities.

'Madame *Dumorier* scarcely survived her husband. On receiving the account of his death, her health rapidly declined: she resigned herself to grief, and refused all society but that of a few of her husband's intimate friends, whose sorrows soothed her own. The amiable Madame *Lehoux*, who was very warmly attached to Mad. *Dumorier*, had favoured me with an introduction to her friend: but, after the violent emotions with which my contemplative visit to Julia's grotto had inspired me, I felt that I could not behold the disconsolate lady, and I consigned my recommendation to the flames.'

That author is indeed fortunate who can relieve his descriptions of external nature by episodes like these; and that study must

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must be cold and barren which warms not the heart, nor invigorates our love of honourable conduct. With pleasure, then, we loiter on the succeeding chapter, in which the well-earned meed of praise is awarded to Mons. *Poivre*, and to his surviving admirer, M. *Hubert*.

'Having received, in 1791, the portrait of M. *Poivre*, our landlord celebrated a rustic festival in his garden, at Pras-Mussard, in honour of the late Intendant. The details of the ceremony are truly affecting, for they paint the heart of him who arranged them.'—

'The news of the festival affected M. *Poivre*'s widow in the most sensible manner. One of her acquaintance read the particulars in a meeting of the Academy of Lyons, and drew tears from his audience. I have seen a letter on the subject, from Madame *Poivre* to M. *Hubert*; and the extracts which I am going to communicate display that excellent lady's heart as well as that of M. *Hubert*, which she could perfectly appreciate by her own.

"Sir,

"I cannot describe to you the impressions which the account of your noble fête, of the 27th of March, last year, has produced on myself, my children, and every virtuous individual who has perused it. I owe you, Sir, the most sincere acknowlegements. Nothing in the world can be more flattering to my feelings; and, at this moment, I want expressions to testify my gratitude and my sensibility.

"What a consolation is it to me, Sir, to see the memory of the virtuous man, to whom I was united, still living in the bosoms of the friends of virtue! It is the most precious reward of a life devoted to study, and to the performance of useful actions.

"We have mingled our tears with your's, Sir, on reading the account of your generous proceeding to the good Jean Louis. You are the first French colonist, who has given an example of emancipation, accompanied with the affecting spectacle which so well accords with the nature of such an act. Your conduct on this occasion is particularly calculated to inspire slaves with the love of labour, and masters with that tender commiseration which forms the happiness of him who exercises it, and of him who is its object." &c.

After such flattering testimonies to the character of M. *Hubert*, the reader will not be surprized to learn that this gentleman has strenuously exerted himself for the benefit of the Isles of France and Bourbon; and that he has been particularly successful in diffusing the culture of the clove and the nutmeg. Under his hospitable roof, our traveller tasted all the sweets of lettered and virtuous society. Among other interesting particulars, he acquaints us that M. *Hubert* performed, in his presence, a course of experiments on the *Arum cordifolium*, which prove that the temperature of its spadix undergoes a considerable elevation during the fecundating process. The fact was first accidentally discovered by Madame *Hubert*, and has been since verified by numerous and accurate thermometri-

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cal observations. In 1777, *Lamarck* remarked a similar property in the spadix of *Arum Italicum*; as did the present author, in company with M. *Hubert*, in that of *A. esculentum*. The experiments are quoted at some length, and promise to lead to important conclusions in vegetable physiology: but, for the reasons already mentioned, we refrain from transcribing them, as well as some valuable observations on extinct craters, and on streams of lava with a scorious surface.

In a future article, we shall resume and conclude our report of these richly diversified and instructive volumes.

[*To be continued.*] Muir.

ART. II. *Histoire des Flibustiers*, &c. *i. e.* A History of the Bucaniers, or Freebooters. Translated from the German of Mr. J. W. D'ARCHENHOLTZ. With a Preface and Notes by the Translator. 8vo. pp. 370. Paris. 1804. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 7s. sewed.

THE praise of being a judicious and elaborate historian, which the French translator here bestows on M. D'ARCHENHOLTZ, he appears to have earned not less in the present than in former instances. Whether he has fairly incurred the censures here passed on him, on account of the free observations on the progress of the French revolution which he is charged with having interwoven with his narrative, we have no means of judging, since the censor has deemed it expedient altogether to suppress them; or, as with more truth he might have said, since he was constrained to prune them as the condition of obtaining an *imprimatur*. We regret this operation, however; and the more when we call to mind, that the German author was once a warm partizan of the revolutionary proceedings. Whatever may have been the justice of this case, we think that the translator is not warranted in reprehending M. D'A. for imputing cowardice to the Spanish colonists: because the charge is not grounded, as he asserts, on the report of Bucanier narrators, but is a conclusion supported by the whole tenor and all the facts of this narrative.

It is not solely in a literary point of view that these details claim attention; they arrest the notice of the student of human nature; and they demand a careful perusal from the public administrator, as exhibiting, in an extraordinary and striking light, the energies of which the human character is capable. It is necessary that we should know, however painful it may be to learn, that valour in the best of causes rarely produces feats and achievements equal to those which distinguish the expeditions of

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of these ferocious hordes; whom familiarity with peril, and the love of plunder, had rendered invincible. Indeed, the exploits of regular warfare fall very short of the deeds which render memorable the incursions of the Bucaniers of the western and southern seas.

If we do not advert to the state of the times, and if we do not bear in mind that colonies were not at this period duly appreciated, that the ascendancy of a superior naval force was not yet comprehended, nor the energies of states called forth by the application of funding systems; without duly weighing these circumstances, we might be led to wonder that no European power availed itself of the aid of the *Brethren of the Coast*, to ravish from Spain her so much envied American possessions. It may perhaps be an object of more reasonable surprize, that no chief was ever found who had address enough to inspire these desperate adventurers with ambition to second him in attempts to tread over the steps, and to realize the fortunes, of Cortez and Pizarro.

The term *Flibustiers*, in the French language, is a corruption of the English word *Freebooters*, the proper designation of the lawless pillagers who have generally, in this country, passed under the name of Bucaniers, or Pirates. The stock, from which this fraternity sprang, is to be found in the hunters of wild cattle in Hispaniola, since too well known under the name of St. Domingo; whose mode of life was in the highest degree rude and gross; and who consisted chiefly of Normans. A spirit of enterprize still distinguished this people; and if formerly they had achieved the conquest of states, but were now contented to rule in wild and boundless forests, and to earn victories over their inhabitants, we shall soon behold them attempting higher destinies, scouring the Spanish main, storming fortresses and cities, making governors prisoners, and engaging the attention, and defeating the plans, of a vast and mighty monarchy. The jealousy of the Spaniards would not suffer them to follow an innocent and peaceable occupation, and meditated nothing short of the utter extirpation of the hunters: but failing in this design, and having suffered grievously in the effort, they reduced their foes to the last extremity by a general destruction of the objects of the chace. In this emergency, it became necessary for them to seek a new vocation, and they fixed on that of the Freebooters; who were also known under the name of the *Brethren of the Coast*, which was their favourite appellation. With this fraternity, then, they were incorporated; and in this capacity they found ample means to avenge themselves on the Spaniards, for the wanton disturbance which they had experienced in their former mode of life.

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The coasts which these Brethren visited, in their more early incursions, were those of Cumana, Carthagena, Porto-Bello, Cuba, and New Spain, and those which bordered on the lakes of Maracaibo and Nicaragua. They confined their naval captures to ships sailing from the Spanish colonies for Europe, because these were laden with materials of small extent and great value; they coveted not the bulky commodities of Europe, and suffered the vessels which bore them to pass unmolested. The success which crowned their early expeditions soon increased their numbers; adventurers of all descriptions were seen to crowd around the standards of western piracy; and all were admitted, without distinction of nation, religion, or language;—except only the Spaniards, who were denied admission into the fraternity.

Tortuga, a small island which had not long before been colonized by France, was the place of rendezvous of the Freebooters; and here they were sure of meeting with protection, of finding supplies for their wants, and every species of pleasure that was adapted to their gross manners. Immediately on their landing, tables covered with delicacies, strong liquors, play, music, and dancing, occupied all their time. Depraved women of all nations and of all colours, induced by avarice and dissoluteness, poured into this spot from all the American islands, and constituted the principal charm, as well as the chief danger, of these tumultuous orgies. Thus were spent, in a few weeks, the treasures which cost long toil, all sorts of privations, much blood, and many lives, even on the part of the Freebooters; to say nothing of the calamities and horrors with which the plundered had been visited, whose least evil (generally speaking) was the loss of the valuables which had become the prey of their merciless robbers.

That early success which attended the Bucaniers was owing to the protection afforded them by the British and French Governments: in every war with Spain, each power readily furnished them with letters of marque: the flourishing state of Jamaica and St. Domingo first arose out of the depredations of these Freebooters; and but for their aid, the French settlements in the West Indies would have been crushed in their commencement. Had France availed itself of their assistance, and of the counsels of *D'Ogeron*, the governor of the French colony of St. Domingo, the whole of that island and the Carolinas would have been added to her empire: but the narrow views of *Colbert* rendered abortive the well-digested plans of the enlightened and politic *D'Ogeron*. If, however, the court of Louis XIV. refused to employ the Freebooters in realizing the great views of the French governor, it had no objection to sanction their pillage,

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pillage, by rendering the tenth of it payable to the government of Tortuga, or of St. Domingo.

Every where, the history of this singular fraternity strongly verifies the adage of *faith among thieves.* Their sense of independence was carried to the utmost length; and it was a rule of their order, that each individual should indulge his inclination and caprice, regardless of the convenience of his fellows. Did any of the society require sleep and repose, they must bear without a murmur the attempts of their associates to debar them of the gratification. Whatever had the effect of calling forth courage, of putting patience to the test, of enuring to privations, and of giving exercise to strength, was to be borne without complaint. Their fidelity in their engagements with each other was exemplary; and if any one violated it, or deprived his companions of a portion of their profits, he was made to undergo severe punishment: he was deprived of his character and property as a member of the order, was exposed without clothing and sustenance on some desert island, and was there left to his evil destiny. The patience of the Bucaniers was inexhaustible: they sustained hunger, thirst, and the greatest fatigues, with a serenity which nothing could affect, and never indulged in any murmur or complaint.

The resolutions of these extraordinary men were sudden and invariable. As soon as they gave their word, they became irrevocably bound; and they frequently pledged it on the simple proposition of an expedition. It was only when they had come to such a resolution, that they deliberated, not whether the plan was practicable or not, but on the best means of carrying it into effect. In their first attempts, they had only small vessels without decks,—sloops, and canoes,—in which they lay heaped one on another; there was hardly room for them to stretch themselves in order to partake of rest or sleep; they were exposed night and day to the inclemency of the skies, and the dangers of the sea; and they were confined to the most scanty sustenance. This destitute state proved to them only an additional incitement to amend their situation by some rich capture: tormented by hunger, they braved the ocean on their frail skiffs; and on the appearance of a vessel, they calculated not the number of the guns nor of the men which it carried, nor did they bestow a thought on the extent of the danger to which they exposed themselves: they were resolved to have the victory; they were in essential want of it; and they obtained it always by boarding the hostile ship. They excelled in this kind of attack: with the rapidity of lightning they crept up the sides of the vessel, which, seeing only an open boat, never suspected danger; and as soon as they set foot

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foot on deck, the ship was theirs. If the party assailed happened to be aware of the attack, as one shot would have sent them to the bottom, they avoided the danger by skilful steerage. They never exposed their sides to the enemy, but always advanced with the head of their vessel only presented to the ship; while their most skilful marksmen took off some of the cannoneers, which created confusion on the enemy's deck. The dread of their name, however, generally paralyzed resistance; the surrender was immediate; and the commiseration of the captors was invoked, as it was well known that, if irritated by resistance, they would infallibly throw the conquered overboard.

Will it be credited that these banditti were much addicted to the external observances of religion? Before the combat, they smote their breasts, prayed with fervor, addressed heaven with all the marks of penitence, settled any differences among themselves, asked mutual forgiveness, and embraced one another as a sign of cordial reconciliation. It is moreover said that these robbers never sat down to a meal without first engaging in acts of religion; that they prayed with fervency; that the Catholics recited the song of Zacharias, the *magnificat*, or the *miserere*; while the Protestants read a chapter in the bible, or a psalm.

This fraternity had for their government a verbal code, because they were in general strangers to the art of writing; and to the observance of these laws each member was sworn on admission. The most perfect equality reigned in the several floating communities. It was a crime punished by death to bring a woman or a young lad on board; and to desert a post in battle incurred the same forfeiture. Theft was expiated in some of the communities by an amputation of the nose and ears, and in others by exposure on a desert island. If the fact of the crime was doubtful, a jury was summoned; when the English and Dutch were sworn on the bible, and the French on the crucifix. Small prevarications were punished according to the discretion of a body called *the Maritime Society*, which inflicted either whipping or club-chastisement. Laws were enacted by a majority of voices, and temporary regulations were often decreed.

Among these bands were persons whom a fanatical turn had introduced, in order to avenge on the Spaniards the unparalleled cruelties exercised by them over the miserable Indians. A singular instance of this kind is furnished in the person of *Monbars*, a young gentleman of Languedoc, who is not unknown to our English readers. While a schoolboy, the recital of the barbarities of the Spaniards had gained possession of his mind, and

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heated his imagination. Scarcely had he become of age, when he expended the whole of his fortune in fitting out a vessel, in order to avenge the wrongs of the Indians; and with this design in view, he made a common cause with the *Brethren of the Coast.* He distinguished himself by sea and land as one of their most daring and skilful leaders. Pillage and licentiousness had no charms for him: vengeance alone animated him. He spared unarmed men, but a Spaniard in arms never escaped his sword; and this implacability occasioned him to be called the Exterminator.—Many of the Bucaniers professed to be actuated by similar principles: they denied that cupidity was the chief motive of their constant struggles with the Spaniards: they founded their right of making war, on the refusal of that nation to let them hunt in her islands, and fish on her immense coasts; and they veiled their attachment to pillage under this specious pretext. Their adventures were encouraged by other nations, on different grounds; sometimes openly, and sometimes secretly.

The situation of the West Indies was extremely favourable to the incursions of these marauders. The numberless natural ports, gulfs, creeks, and small islands, which are found in that quarter, with the abundance of provisions and good water, exceedingly facilitated their attempts; and places of safety were accessible to their small barks, to which larger vessels could not approach. These parts, therefore, became the theatre of their exploits; and they confined their piracies to the American seas, making St. Christopher's, Tortuga, St. Domingo, and Jamaica, the seats of their residence,—if any fixed residence can be said to belong to Beings so erratic.

Amid other achievements worthy of notice, stands that of *Pierre-le-Grand*, a native of Dieppe. He sailed in a vessel with only 28 men on board, and on the western coast of St. Domingo met a large Spanish armed ship with a complement of more than 200 men. The pirates, as soon as they perceived her, mutually swore to take her, or to perish in the attempt, and advanced to her about the time of sunset. They were armed only with swords and pistols; yet, having bored holes in their own bark, which they had scarcely time to quit before she went to the bottom, they slew all who made any resistance, secured the magazine of arms, surprized the officers, (who were playing at cards in the greatest security,) and soon rendered themselves masters of the vessel. The Spaniards, attacked thus unexpectedly, and seeing no ship of any kind near them, regarded the pirates as demons dropped from the clouds, and gravely observed to one another that they must be devils.

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All the Spanish ships which appeared in these seas were thus attacked and captured, whether they were great or small, mounting guns or unarmed, sailing with or without convoy. In a short time the small craft of the freebooters disappeared, and they were met traversing the seas in the captured vessels, carrying on their piracy on a larger scale; and the Spaniards were obliged to make a temporary renunciation of commerce. They flattered themselves that thus the pirates, having no longer any prey which they could seize, would be reduced to inaction, and their confederacy dissolved: but they soon found that they were deceived in their calculation. Weary of fruitless cruising, the Bucaniers resolved on making inroads on the land; which they were not long in accomplishing, to the serious cost of their distressed enemies.

The adventures of *d'Olonois*, *Van Horn*, and *Morgan*, which are here recorded, abound with stratagems, feints, and exploits, which can scarcely be paralleled; and the reader is shocked by relations of horrors and barbarities of which savage bands are alone capable. The calamities with which the islands and the main were visited, during the triumphant æra of the Bucanier history, far exceeded those which were inflicted on the southern regions of Europe by the hordes of the north. The sufferings of the Spaniards, indeed, strongly impress the mind with the notion of the retributive justice of Providence. The descendants of those who had no bowels of compassion, no feelings of tenderness towards the hapless barbarians whom they had subdued, in their turn fell into the hands of men who were the refuse of civilization, and experienced visitations which could proceed only from such a description of persons united together, and acting in concert from the most abandoned views. The ignorance of the savages, and the mild manners of civilized nations, seemed as it were to guarantee indemnity to the Spaniards for that behaviour towards the subdued Indians, for which even cannibals might well feel compunction. Ministers of vengeance, however, are not long wanting. Skill, enterprize, and daring, are displayed, against which strength of defence and remoteness of situation afford no protection. The assailants are strangers to every feeling of humanity, to every sentiment of tenderness, to every civilized usage. These were the visitors of the cities of the Spanish main, and the instruments of misery to their inhabitants, equalled only by that which was inflicted by their own ancestors on the unprotected Indians. When they had pillaged, they set fire to the towns, and consumed whatever they did not carry away. The several species of torture to which they subjected the inhabitants, in order to compel them to discover the places where they con-

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cealed their treasures, it would take numerous pages to describe; and of many of them, decency forbids the mention. In the town of Puerto Cavallo, the tongues of a great number were taken out by the roots; and finally, all the inhabitants, except two, who were reserved in order to serve as guides, were massacred.—The practice of the freebooters in short amounted to this;—to attack large vessels with small craft, and always to be victorious; to make descents, to triumph over regular troops, to take forts by assault, to pillage cities, to storm the strongest fortified places, to exercise cruelties of every kind, and seldom to experience reverses.

Among the Bucanier chiefs, *Morgan*, the son of a wealthy farmer in the principality of Wales, claims a sort of dreadful pre-eminence. He excelled all the other chiefs in the daring of his plans, in the ability with which they were conducted, and in the address with which he extricated himself from the difficulties in which they involved him, as well as in the cruelties with which their execution was attended. *Puerto del Principe*, in the isle of Cuba, Porto Bello, the *dépôt* of the gold and silver of Mexico and Peru, and Panama on the continent, surrendered to this intrepid adventurer. The horrors of which he was the author at Gibraltar compose the most freezing tale furnished even by the bloody annals of these pirates. This monster, it is said, who realized in this career one hundred thousand pounds, spent his latter days in peace and tranquillity; having fixed his residence at Jamaica, where he filled the greatest posts in the state, and enjoyed, with perfect security, the wealth which had cost so many tears and so much blood to the victims of his avarice, though it is supposed never to have excited the least remorse in his own hardened heart.

The most extraordinary achievement of this extraordinary brotherhood is the last in which the genuine Bucaniers engaged, viz. their passage across the south American continent, from Nicaragua to the Cape *Gracias a Dios*.

Satiated with rich seizures and successful incursions during their cruise in the southern ocean, the Bucaniers resolved to return to their native homes; and in order the more speedily to gratify this wish, they determined to pass by land to the northern sea. They mustered no more than 285 at their place of rendezvous; and they had to traverse countries inhabited by a people to whom they had given ample cause for seeking to be avenged on them, and to whom their intentions were no secret. Each carried his own baggage; and they began this eventful expedition on the 1st of January 1688. They found the country, as they passed, stripped of every thing; fire was set to the produce of the soil, in order wholly to cut off all means of

subsistence; the smoke nearly suffocated them, while the conflagrations materially delayed them, and favoured the projects of their enemies; their course was every where beset by ambuscades; and they were kept in constant alarm. No where could they find an atom of provision. When they came to a pass guarded by a large and rapid river on one side, and by a thick forest on the other, they beheld vast entrenchments before them, defended by a force amounting to ten times their number; and the encampment was fortified on all sides, except one, which was guarded by tremendous rocks and precipices. By the help, however, of a dark night, and an early mist, the Bucaniers made their way over these rocks unperceived, and were not discovered till they were seen within the enemy's lines; they then found an easy victory; and slaughter only ceased through the weariness of the conquerors. During this time, a third part of their number guarded the baggage, and kept at bay a flying body of Spaniards which threatened them in the rear.—Having surmounted this obstacle, they met with no farther obstructions, except such as nature and the want of provisions caused: but these were difficulties which proved more serious and fatal than those which they had encountered from the enemy. On the 16th day of their march they reached the river which was to convey them to the sea of the Antilles, and which is supposed to have been the Magdalen, though no name is given to it in their accounts. The calamities which they had hitherto experienced were trifles compared with those which they were destined now to undergo, and which are said, by the stoutest of their number, to mock all description.

They were without craft of any kind, and without the means of constructing any: but, with wood which they procured from an adjoining forest, and by the help of gummy matter which they discovered in the same place, they constructed a species of machines by which they hoped to be able to transport themselves to the northern shores;—and to these they boldly committed themselves and their fortunes. Never have we read of so perilous and so painful a navigation. The bed of the river was full of dangerous rocks; tremendous cataracts frequently occurred; their vessels were often overset, their provisions were soon spoiled in consequence of being wetted, and by the same means their ammunition and their guns were rendered unfit for use; many lost their lives, and a greater number their treasures; and huge trees, torn up by the roots, were as fatal to their frail barks near the mouth of the river, as the rocks and cataracts had proved near its source. Constantly wetted, and undergoing continual fatigue, they lived for days on the raw fruit of the banana tree. At length, on the 9th of

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March, and on the 68th day of their romantic expedition, they reached the mouth of the river, not far from the Cape *Gracias a Dios*. It is impossible to conceive the miserable figure which they made: but luckily they were soon taken on board by English vessels, and carried to the West India islands, where they arrived about the end of April.

The author remarks on this marvellous adventure, that history presents nothing more astonishing, without excepting even the famous retreat of the ten thousand; to which, he observes, it is hardly proper to compare it, when we reflect on the sort of persons engaged in the two achievements. It is impossible, indeed, as he takes notice, for any thing to exceed the execution of the hardy design of the Bucaniers; when we consider the time which it occupied, the opposition made to it, the daring with which it was commenced, and the constancy with which it was effected.

This was the last adventure of these brethren that merits the attention of posterity. The genuine Bucaniers cease to be conspicuous after this period; and those to whom the name was subsequently applied were mere pirates. These men continued to infest the American seas for a considerable time after the commencement of the last century; and their chief place of rendezvous was the island of Providence, one of the Bahamas. They were chased thence by the English; and an asylum was held out to them in the port of Trinidado, in the island of Cuba, where they received the countenance of the Spaniards, who had been afflicted so grievously by their predecessors: but the activity of the governor of Jamaica, assisted by the co-operation of Admiral Vernon, drove them from this haunt, and entirely freed the sea from them. Many of them ended their days in the prisons of the American islands, and some were transported to Great Britain, where they suffered death as pirates.

Such, observes the author, was the end of this famous floating republic of the freebooters of the western seas; to which, during the last forty years of the seventeenth century, there wanted only a chief of superior genius and extensive views, in order to subjugate America from one pole to the other, and to give to our globe a form altogether different from that which it acquired in consequence of the establishment of colonies, of commerce, and of navigation. These men, however, by their tumultuous and licentious conduct, by their aversion to all restraint, by their want of fixed rules and a definite object, destitute of the ambition of renown, strangers to glory, and actuated solely by the love of transitory gratifications, formed a corporation of which the annals of mankind do not furnish a single

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single parallel. They displayed those energies and powers, both of body and mind, by which mighty events are always achieved; and their singular exploits, if they do not deserve the admiration, will at least excite the astonishment, of the latest posterity.

In conclusion, we must observe that M. D'ARCHENHOLTZ has unquestionably made the most of his subject; that the chiefs of this brotherhood of pillage are well selected and ably depicted; and that their surprising adventures are luminously narrated.

Jo.

ART. III. *Minéralogie des Anciens,* &c. *i. e.* Mineralogy of the Antients, &c. By M. DE LAUNAY.

[*Article concluded from the last Appendix.*]

IMMEDIATELY on the entrance of the second division, this author again betrays his unfortunate predilection for etymology. 'The French word *sel*,' he says, 'is formed by the change of a letter in the Latin *sal*. This last, with the exception of the aspirate, is the anagram of ἅλς, the Greek name for salt, which they also denominated ἅλος. It is somewhat remarkable that the German *salz* presents at once a compound of the Latin *sal* and of the Greek ἅλς.' We admit that *sal* is deduced from ἅλς, but not in the way of anagram. It is well known that the Latins, in borrowing words from the Greeks, substituted an *s*, or the digamma, for the aspirate, as *sylva* from ὕλη, *super* from ὕπερ, *filius* from υἱος, &c. In the case of *sal*, the final *s* of the original has been dropped to prevent a disagreeable sibilation.

Although the antients appear to have been acquainted with different substances which we denominate *salts*, they applied the term ἅλς, or *sal*, only to muriate of soda,—to speak in the language of modern chemistry. They distinguished, however, *sea* from *rock* salt. Pliny, Dioscorides, and Galen, likewise take notice of that which is produced in small quantities on rocks near the sea-shore, by spontaneous evaporation, and which the two latter writers denominate *halos achne.*

The extraction of salt from sea-water appears to have been effected by the heat of the sun and the aid of *fresh water. Non sine aquæ dulcis riguis, sed imbre maxime juvante,* says Pliny. The same writer, however, when he makes mention of the salt-works of Crete, observes that the salt is obtained without the presence of fresh water. The use of the latter was probably to wash away impurities.

M. DE LAUNAY very properly notices the different colours of rock-salt mentioned by Pliny, but he is silent with regard to the *black* sort, to which Horace alludes in the fourth of his second book of Satires:

"*Primus et invenior piper album cum sale nigro.*"

Festus would likewise have informed him that spilling the salt at table was reckoned ominous. This superstitious prejudice, which has been carefully transmitted down to our own days, may perhaps be traced to some of the eastern nations; among whom salt is still reckoned a symbol of friendship, and its sudden dispersion may consequently be construed into a rupture between the parties most nearly concerned.

There is still some reason for doubting whether *hammoniacum* was our *sal ammoniac*. The similarity of name, and the nauseous taste, are in favour of the identity; yet Dioscorides makes no distinct mention of *hammoniacum*, and Pliny slightly notices it in the middle of his account of common salt. Wallerius likewise presumes that it corresponded to rock-salt.

Under *alumen*, the antients probably included *vitriol*: but we can hardly acquiesce in the opinion of Beckmann, though supported by ingenious arguments, that they were ignorant of our alum. The *liquid* kind was so denominated, not because it was found precisely in a fluid state, but to distinguish it from the dry sorts. *Melos*, now *Milo*, is mentioned as one of the places which yielded the best alum. Tournefort, Dr. Matthews, and other travellers, assert that they have observed alum in different parts of this island: but Beckmann contends that the substance in question is only vitriol. The *scissile* and *filamentous* varieties, however, cannot easily apply to the latter, and seem plainly to point to *aluminous schistus*, in the state in which it sometimes occurs in old coal wastes.

It deserves to be noted that the *alumen* of the Romans, whether vitriol or alum, was used, as has been attempted in modern times, to protect timber from fire. See Aul. Gel. *Noct. Att.* l. xv. c. i. and Ammianus Marcellinus, lib. i. N. 11.

Chalcanthum, flower of copper, denoted our blue vitriol. The Romans gave to it the popular appellation of *atramentum sutorium*; because the shoemakers employed it to blacken their leather.

The author's explanation of *Chalcitis*, *Sory*, and *Misy*, is more learned than satisfactory:

"We know, (he says,) that Pliny ranks the *chalcitis* among the ores of copper, being a stone containing veins of that metal. We also know that Dioscorides requires the *chalchis* used in medicine to have a cupreous appearance, and to be crossed by shining veins. We learn, moreover,

moreover, that the name *chalcitis* is derived from the Greek appellation of copper, and that therefore it must have been a substance of the nature of copper:—but what, in the first instance, shall we say of those *copper veins* which the *chalcitis* exhibited? Shall we believe that they were native copper? The antients must have found them in very considerable quantities, as we shall notice in the sequel; meanwhile, we shall suppose that the veins in question were copper pyrites. Along with these veins, the *chalcitis* presented a soft, friable substance, having the appearance of *compressed wool*, and which was a saline, earthy, and cupreous matter. When this matter underwent any alteration, or modification, from the action of the air, or of moisture, it became, *in its decrepitude*, what was called *sory*; and, lastly, when submitted to the action of heat, it presented another modification, which was termed *misy*."

The precise amount of *nitrum* is not more accurately settled. Here Pliny is again quoted at length, but so as rather to bewilder than direct the inquisitive mineralogist. It is not improbable that the appellation was given to our *nitre* or *saltpetre*, to *natron*, and to some alkaline salt, which was used in the manufacture of glass. The *aphronitrum* probably resulted from the decomposition of one or more of these substances; though some passages would lead us to conjecture that it was simple nitre in a state of efflorescence. It was used for rubbing the body after bathing. The classical reader perhaps anticipates these lines of Martial;

> "*Rusticus es, nescis quid Græco nomine dicar:*
> *Spuma vocor nitri, dicor et aphronitrum.*"

Schelhammer, who composed a treatise on *nitre*, is disposed to tax with gross ignorance those who confound it with *aphronite*. This confusion, however, is sanctioned by Pliny, Martial, and the Arabian physicians. Dioscorides, Etius, and others, on the contrary, insist on the distinction. We could have wished that M. DE LAUNAY had sifted these particulars with more critical diligence.

Our cursory analysis has now conducted us to the author's third general division; which, as we have already intimated, relates to *inflammable substances*, and comprizes the *bitumens* and *sulphur*.—To the former belong *petroleum*, or *rock-oil*, in its various modifications of *mineral pitch*, *asphaltus*, *naphtha*, *gagas*, or *jet*, &c. The precise consistency and distinct qualities of each of these bituminous substances are by no means accurately defined; for though M. DE LAUNAY is far from deficient in words and quotations, he leaves the antient nomenclature nearly as perplexed as he found it.—*Ampelitis* and *Thracius lapis* were probably two kinds of pit-coal. Two or three marked passages in Theophrastus induce us to believe that this species of fuel was

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known at a very early period —" The stones called *coals*," says he, " which are broken for use, are earthy, and nevertheless burn like wood. They are found, like amber, in Liguria, and likewise in Elis, in the tract of the mountainous pass to Olympia. They are used by the blacksmiths." Again; " In the promontory called *Erineas*, is found a stone resembling that of *lena*. When inflamed, it yields a bituminous vapour, and gives a residuum very nearly approaching to calcined earth."

Electrum and *succinum*, the antient names of *amber*, have given rise to a question which has been much agitated among the learned; viz. whether they denoted two kinds of that substance. M. DE LAUNAY, after having exposed the arguments on both sides, very sensibly remarks that the discussion may be brought within a narrow compass. ' They had an amber which they found thrown up on the sea-coast, and an amber dug from the earth, but the substance was the same. We shall, moreover, suppose that they may have mistaken for this fossil matter the resinous juices of certain trees, or, at least, that they distinguished such juices by the appellation of *succinum*. The necessity of such a supposition is abundantly manifest.' By the help of this explanation, we are enabled to reconcile the apparent discrepancies of different passages in the writings of the antients.—' According to Pliny,' continues our author, ' the *succina*, or amber vases, were esteemed equal in worth to those made of precious stones. They were, however, held inferior to those of crystal, or *murrhinum*, which preserved their included liquors in a state of coolness.'

The female villagers beyond the Po, like fine ladies of the present day, wore amber necklaces; a proof that, in small fragments, this substance could be procured at a moderate price. When Julianus was charged with the preparation of a gladiatorial spectacle, to be exhibited in the presence of Nero, he sent a commission into Germany for the express purpose of collecting amber; and so successfully did the messenger accomplish his errand, that all the objects belonging to the public shew were either made of this substance, or ornamented with it.

Of the four kinds of *sulphur* mentioned by Pliny, the *vivum* corresponds to *native sulphur*. The other three are loosely characterized, but appear to have been extracted from substances in which they occurred in a mixed state.—The *sulphurata*, or *sulphurata ramenta*, were our common matches. Martial alludes to the hawkers, who exchanged them for broken glasses:

" *Hoc*

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" *Hoc quod Transtyberinus ambulator,*
Qui pallentia sulphurata fractis
Permutat vitreis."

So Juvenal;

" *Siccabis calicem nasorum quatuor, ac jam*
Quassatum, et rupto poscentem sulphura nitro."

The metals which form the subject of the fourth division are *gold*, *silver*, *copper*, *iron*, *lead*, *tin*, and *mercury*. Though the antients mention *cadmia* or *calamine*, it is not certain that they were acquainted with the process of converting it into zinc. The discovery of the reguline state of the ores of arsenic, antimony, and manganese, was likewise reserved for subsequent periods.

The section intitled *aurum* is, perhaps, nearly as satisfactory as the imperfect data furnished by Pliny and others will admit, but it contains little that merits special quotation. Gold was extracted formerly, as now, from the sand of particular rivers, and from appropriate mines. With an alloy of nearly the present standard, it was fashioned into money, vessels, and ornamental trinkets. As in these days, it was also formed into very thin leaves, and drawn into threads, for the purposes of gilding and embroidery. Pliny inveighs with ludicrous indignation against the use of this precious metal:- " The man," he says, " who first wore a gold ring, was not less *criminal* than he who devised the expedient of gold coin."

With respect to the use of silver, we have these remarks:

' The Romans, as Pliny informs us, were extremely partial to silver vases, the forms of which varied with the caprice of fashion. That author speaks of *Firmian*, *Clodian*, and *Gratian* vases,—so called, no doubt, from *Firmius*, *Clodius*, and *Gratianus*, the artists who had invented the models or ornaments of these vessels. The same writer relates that two silver goblets, made by a person named *Mentor*, were of such exquisite workmanship, that their owner, the orator Crassus, was ashamed to make use of them.'—' It is supposed that the number of silver dishes, weighing 100 lb. each, exceeded five hundred in Rome alone; and that those of inferior weight amounted in all to 850 lb. *Drusillanus* had a silver dish, which weighed of itself 500 lb. This extraordinary vessel must have required a separate workshop. Other articles adapted to the luxury of the Roman tables, and even kitchen utensils, were made of silver. This metal contributed to the ornament of chariots and beds, and even to the manufacture of mirrors.'

The author might have remarked that the Romans had no silver coin till about four hundred and eighty-five years from the foundation of the city; that silver tissue was unknown before the reign of Aurelian; that its use was very prevalent under the Greek emperors; that in the Claudian baths the

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water was conveyed in silver pipes; and that the silver coinage was materially debased under the reign of Septimius Severus, though he was complimented with the title of *Restitutor Monetæ.*

M. DE LAUNAY next enters, with some minuteness, into the distinctions of the different kinds of *Æs*, or copper, and its compounds, which were of such extensive use among the ancients. The latter knew the art of tempering copper, and forming it into sharp-edged instruments. Brass was particularly destined for lustres, thresholds, the capitals of pillars, monumental plates, the gates of temples, &c. Bronze was chiefly employed by the statuary. Thus Pliny relates that, during the edileship of *Marcus Scaurus*, three thousand bronze statues adorned a temporary theatre. He likewise asserts that colossal statues of the same composition, and equal to towers in height, were *without number*. From the same writer, we learn that verdegrease was obtained from copper by the application of vinegar, or of the refuse of the wine-press.

A supplementary article is allotted to *orichalcum*, or *aurichalcum*, a subject which has excited so much learned disquisition. The present writer states most of the respectable opinions, and alleges as his own that the term was applied to two different substances, the one natural, and the other artificial. The former was not less prized than gems, but whether it were a rich copper ore, or something of a different description, remains to be ascertained. The latter appears to have been either common *brass*, or *pinchbeck*. One or two passages in Pliny would even lead us to infer that *aurichalcum* denoted *tin-foil*. It seems highly probable that the difference in orthography was originally well founded,—that *orichalcum* was at first uniformly applied to the natural, and *aurichalcum* to the artificial production.

Iron and the *magnet* are treated in the same manner with the preceding article. The refuse of some antient forges is a proof that the Romans were imperfectly acquainted with the extraction of iron from its ore, since the slags are found to contain a very considerable portion of metal. Yet allusions to the working of this metal occur in the books of Moses, Job, &c. and Goguet has collected abundant evidence of the high antiquity of the art.

The opinions of *Pliny*, *Dioscorides*, *Falconet*, &c. relative to the load-stone, are shortly examined, but the result is unimportant.

Plumbum nigrum of Pliny is rendered by *common lead*, or *galena*; and *plumbum*, by itself, or accompanied with the epithet *album* or *candidum*, is translated *tin*. The last, we need hardly observe,

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observe, was also denominated *stannum*, though Pliny likewise gives this name to the first refuse from melted lead. The Roman naturalist mentions Gaul, Spain, and especially Britain, as affording mines of lead. In the two first-mentioned countries, he says, it was obtained with trouble: "*Sed in Britannia summo terræ corio adeo large, ut lex ultro dicatur, ne plus certo modo fiat.*" The Romans prepared sheet and white lead from this metal, and used it for water pipes, and different sorts of vessels.

Tin was chiefly employed as a lining to copper vessels, and in the manufacture of metallic mirrors. The best of these last were made at *Brundusium*. "*Specula quoque ex eo laudatissima, ut diximus, Brundisii temperabantur, donec argenteis uti cœpere.*" Buffon supposes that the tin used for this purpose was mixed with bismuth: but M. DE LAUNAY properly remarks that Pliny himself asserts that it was mixed with copper:—"*Atque ut omnia de speculis peragantur hoc loco, optima apud majores fuerant Brundisina, stanno et ore mixtis.*"

Many excellent and acute observations will be found in the next section, relative to *mercury* and *minium*: but we must be contented to extract the concluding paragraph:

'It appears, as I have remarked above, that the principal use which the antients made of mercury was in the process of gilding metals. This gilding was not effected, as at present, by amalgamation, or a paste composed of gold and mercury. *Grosse*, who makes this observation, and who moreover remarks that the antients employed very thick gold leaf in the operation, relates, from *Winkelmann*, that antiquaries have put us in possession of specimens of their skill in this art, which are as fresh and beautiful as if they had just proceeded from the hand of the workman.'

Such is a brief sketch of the mineralogy of the antients, as exhibited by a writer who has at least the merit of bringing into a connected series many scattered observations, on a subject little susceptible of distinct elucidation; and of diligently collecting such materials as he found, rather than indulging in conjecture, or contending for theories. The frequency and accuracy of his references greatly add to the usefulness of his labours: but we cannot commend the capricious humour with which he sometimes quotes the entire text,—sometimes only indicates by cyphers the book, chapter, and page,—sometimes gives the original alone,—sometimes the original accompanied with a translation,—and sometimes only a translation. We likewise regret that he so seldom applies his knowlege to the explication of passages in the classical writers, and that his style is tame, and remote from elegance. On these accounts, his publication will probably be more frequently consulted than perused.

To

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To this volume are annexed a comparative table of the antient and modern mineral nomenclature, a suitable index, and explanatory notes.

Muir.

ART. IV. *Le Troubadour*, &c. *i. e.* The Troubadour;—Occitanic Poems of the Thirteenth Century, translated and published by FABRE D'OLIVET, Author of Azalaïs and the Gentle Aimar, and of Letters on History to Sophia. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1803. Imported by De Boffe. Price 14s. sewed.

THE author dedicates these volumes, in a lively and pathetic mixture of prose and verse, to his mother, who first taught him the language of the Troubadours. With respect to the poems of which he professes to be the editor, we cannot help observing that they come before the public in a very questionable shape. The MSS., he informs us, were transmitted to him by the post from Montpellier, accompanied by a letter, of which the following is an extract:

'Sir, 'Montpellier, 21 Floréal, year 8.

'Attracted by the celebrity of the Provençal story of Azelaïs, and the gentle Aimar, I procured a copy of it, and perused it with the greater pleasure, because I am an enthusiastic admirer of every thing that recalls the productions of my country, and the language in which I have been educated.

'As an acknowlegement of the genuine satisfaction which I have felt, I forward to your address a copy of certain MSS. which have continued in our possession from time immemorial, and which have been handed down to us from father to son, like a family inheritance. I should certainly have translated and published them myself, if I were conscious of possessing the requisite talents: but, besides being wholly unpractised in writing, I confess that I am as anxious to shun the name of author as others are to seek it. The ease, which characterizes your translations, convinces me that you will cheerfully undertake this new labour, which promises to be attended with advantage. Notwithstanding the intrinsic merit of the story of Azalaïs, you will readily perceive that it by no means equals the poems which I send to you. I am convinced that these original productions, skilfully transfused into the French language, might represent the Troubadours of the south, as the poems of Ossian represent the bards of the north. They will convey a more accurate picture of the manners and genius of these fathers of modern poetry, than any thing which has yet appeared.

'You see, Sir, how highly I prize the present which I tender to your acceptance. I only ask, in return, that you will not disdain it. Two circumstances will, no doubt, excite your curiosity, viz. the name of the author of the MSS., and that of their possessor, who addresses you. In regard to the first, I can only say that my ancestors have, for generations, lived in the district of Géraudan, where

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where they held seignorial fees of considerable extent; and that I have heard my grandfather, (certainly instructed by tradition,) affirm that these poems had been bequeathed to them by a celebrated Troubadour, who was born at *l'Espérou*, a small village on their estate. The original MSS, which I retain, bear no marks that can lead to a discovery of the author's name. They are written on parchment, in the Gothic character, and have only general titles at the beginning of each subject.—Allow me to conceal my own name, which it is of no consequence for you to know. As to your address, I easily found it; for though you had not put your name to the translation of the Provençal tale of Azaläis, every body here knew that it proceeded from your pen. Your family, who, as I have since been informed, live in the Cevennes, have not chosen to imitate your silence, and your secret has been betrayed.

'For the rest, permit me to repeat my compliments, &c.

'RESCONDUT*.

Thus scanty is the evidence brought forwards in support of the authenticity of these Occitanic poems. In vain the publisher, in his introduction and preliminary dissertation, descants on the language, poetry, and history of the Provençal bards. His observations, though frequently minute and judicious, are little calculated to remove our doubts respecting the genuineness of his present publication. Whoever is conversant in the existing *patois* of southern France may imitate the language of the Troubadours, without much fear of detection; and he who coolly avers that his translation of Azaläis was not 'too bold an imposition' may delude the public with provincial effusions of his own inditing. In fact, M. D'OLIVET now avows himself to be the *author* of Azaläis, &c.; and are we certain that, in some future work, he may not lay claim to the composition of the *Loves of Rose* and the *Return of Elyz?* The length of some of these pieces, the marked similarity of style and manner which pervades them, and which we cannot trace in the scraps preserved by the laborious diligence of *St. Pelaye*, (the editor's *doubts* respecting the Letters of Sappho and Phaon,) and occasional allusions to an advanced state of agriculture, all conspire to strengthen our suspicions. We admit, at the same time, that some passages have been inserted in the *Court of Love*, which seem to have been copied, or at least imitated from undoubted originals: but this *Court of Love* is evidently a piece of patch-work, which a practised hand might easily tack together, from the vague recitals of Nostradamus, and fragments of the MSS. preserved at Paris. We shall therefore announce these translations as we find them; without, by any means, subscribing to the alleged antiquity of the originals, and without

* From *reconditus—concealed.*

admonish-

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admonishing the learned to alter their notions of the poetry of the Troubadours.

The first poem, which extends to 130 pages, and is divided into five cantos, is intitled the '*Loves of Rose and of Ponce de Meyrueis.*'—Nadal, who had wandered ten years as a pilgrim, and was on the point of arriving at the place of his nativity on the banks of the Tarn, is overtaken by the darkness of the night, and finds himself bewildered among precipices, torrents, and wolves: but Faith, Hope, and Charity, to whose voice he had listened when roaming in the Holy Land, still wait on his footsteps, and conduct him to the castle of Roquedol; once the hospitable dwelling of the brave Herail, but now unjustly held by Raimond, a cruel and avaricious baron, who shut his gate against the benighted pilgrim. Emima, or Faith, intercedes in his behalf with the Virgin Mary, and, after some heavenly machinery is put in motion, conducts Nadal to the house of Ponce de Meytueis, from whom he experienced a warm and kind reception. In the course of the conversation, it is discovered that Nadal was the faithful squire of Herail; that the fair Rose was betrothed by her father Raimond to Ponce, the son of Herail, but that the lord of Aulas, the only witness of the oaths which had been exchanged between Raimond and Herail, had died; that the baron had seized his property; and that he detained his own daughter in the castle of Roquedol. Ponce swears to be revenged, and Nadal pledges his faith to assist him in the adventure.

Meanwhile, at the request of the Virgin Mary, Gabriel conjures up a delightful phantom of the son of Herail to the contemplation of Rose, during her nocturnal visions, and Zoelia performs the like good office for the young knight. The parties, in course, are already quite enamoured of each other.

Ponce, perceiving that Raimond not only debarred him from an interview with his daughter, but even denied him admittance into his castle, resolved to enter it under the disguise of a Troubadour; and his trusty Nadal accompanied him in the more humble character of a minstrel. Allured by the promise of magnificent presents, the baron not only granted them permission to enter his castle, but to exercise their respective talents. The sound of the lute, and the beauty of Rose, were powerfully enchanting; the extatic visions were realized; and the lovers were fixed in transport. At length, the son of Herail, inspired by heaven with holy ardour, thus exclaims:

"Baron, inquire no longer for the cause of an event of which Providence is the author. Hear me—in one word I will resolve your doubts. Under the mask of a Troubadour, behold the son of the brave Herail, your antient friend.—I am Ponce de Meyrueis."—

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At this declaration, as abrupt as it was unexpected, Raimond was immoveable. Surprize and passion fixed him in silence; and Ponce continued.—" Before I demanded the performance of the solemn promise which you gave to my father, I wished to be assured that fame, in proclaiming the beauties of your daughter, had not exaggerated them. I wished to appear in her presence, and to merit her consent, when I had obtained yours."—With these words, he fell prostrate at the feet of the blooming Rose, and thus proceeded: " Heaven itself, whose prophetic voice has conducted my steps, possesses not a more perfect beauty. O Rose, before I saw you, I loved you; and since I have seen you, I adore you. My life and my fame are in your hands—on you depends my happiness. Listen to the oath which I now utter,—on the faith of a knight, I promise to shed the last drop of my blood in the defence of your honour; and I swear to you love, constancy, and loyalty."

' Scarcely recovered from her swoon, the daughter of Raimond still kept silence; and the baron, who, during the knight's discourse, had regained his presence of mind, loudly denied his promise; when Nadal suddenly interrupting him, exclaimed, " Spare yourself, Baron de Roquedol, spare yourself the disgrace of an unavailing falsehood. Recollect the Lord of Aulas, who stood surety for the performance of your oath—and—look at me. I am Nadal, squire to the brave Herail,—Nadal, whom ten years ago you received into your castle. When Herail lay expiring in my arms, under the walls of Solyma, he kept no secrets from me;—and, lo! behold what he traced with the point of the arrow which robbed him of existence."—Then throwing back the cymbal, which hung on his scarf, he unfolded a vellum scroll, on which was written, in characters of blood,—IN THE NAME OF THE MOST HIGH, RAIMOND, KEEP THY FAITH.

' Raimond for a moment stood confounded at the sight: but, soon recalling his savage audacity, he uttered these dreadful words, dictated by the angel of darkness: " Depart from my castle, base impostors, and no longer profane those names which you have assumed. Insolent Troubadour, who hast dared to arrogate the title of knight, where, I ask, is thy sword? What noble banner waves on the point of thy lance? How many are the emblems of valour recounted on thy shield?—As for you, recreant minstrel, I beseech you, shew me the burnished gold of your spurs."

' On hearing this uncourteous address, the son of the brave Herail arose from his seat; and, turning with dignity to the baron, he calmly replied: " To-morrow, ere the sun has finished his mid-way course, you shall be satisfied; you shall see the sword and the spurs which you require. In the mean time, reflect on your oaths, and know that my heart, fraught with the most saint-like passion, expects of you happiness or death." Thus speaking, and casting on the lovely Rose his eyes beaming with the tenderest solicitude of love, he departed with Nadal, and returned to the mansion of Meyrueis.

' Rose, without pronouncing a word, approached her father; and, kissing his hand with respect, she moistened it with a tear which seemed to flow warm from the heart. She then retired to her chamber, and her damsels accompanied her.'

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The narrative then details the perplexities of the baron, and his nocturnal interview with a witch, of whom he requested counsel and assistance. After divers and awful incantations have passed in review, a hideous monster bids him demand of the knight 'the sword of the four Algais.' Ponce, on the other hand, prepares for the sequel of his fate by prayer; and by a tender serenade, which enraptures the object of his love. Early in the next morning, he and his faithful Nadal repair to the castle, duly arrayed in armour: but Raimond refuses to be satisfied with the proofs of knighthood which he had formerly required with so much haughtiness.—"If the person (he said) whom I saw in the effeminate garb of a Troubadour, and who now stands before me cased in the brass of the brave, be indeed the son of Herail, he may rely on my promise—the hand of Rose, and the ample domains of Roquedol and Aulas, are his portion:—but I previously insist on a pledge of his valour, and that pledge is the sword of the four Algais."

Nadal shuddered at this alarming requisition: but the valiant youth accepted the defiance. The sword which he swore to win was the guardian of four gigantic monsters, *Calumny*, *Vengeance*, *Murder*, and *Death*, who held their horrid sway in the gorges of the mountains denominated *Cursed*, and situated amid those savage defiles which wind along the Alps. Many were the valourous knights who, prompted by the noble desire of fame, had already perished in attempting to secure the fatal talisman. The adventurous Ponce, we may be well assured, was doomed to feel the extent of his danger, and to wage a dreadful warfare. His feats of prowess, his fatigues, and his perils, furnish accordingly the materials of a copious relation: but the 'Mother-Spouse of the Eternal' was on his side, and he prevailed.

A predatory band of Saracens had meanwhile ravaged the fertile fields of Occitania, pillaged the castle of Roquedol, left the baron weltering in his blood, and led off its fair inhabitant, to grace the seraglio of the ferocious Miramolin. Raimond, on his death-bed, agitated by severe but tardy remorse, dictated the following letter to the son of Herail:

"Haste—pursue the footsteps of my daughter.—The future, which is often revealed to the dying, informs me of your approaching union. If, as an inward voice admonishes me, you have triumphed, fly, and wield against these infamous spoilers that fatal blade which I asked only for your ruin. When you return, I shall be no more. My crimes, which are great, will be cancelled by you, but not by God; who, with a terrible hand, throws me far from him, and hurls me to perdition. Too well have I deserved this fate. Not only have I stript you of your inheritance, and that I might appropriate the possessions

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essions of the lord of Aulas, did I tear the will which he made in your favour, but I even sought your own destruction, to get rid of he engagements which I plighted to your father. Accept this ublic avowal of my crimes, and the expression of my remorse.—Save ny daughter.—All my estates are yours.—May you enjoy them more vorthily than I have done. After my decease, you will take the ame of the Baron of Roquedol; and when you lead your consort o my recent tomb, you will pray with her, that the God of mercy may be pleased to spare me in the day of his wrath."

A troop of brave warriors was now hastily assembled; and Ponce led them on to battle in the neighbourhood of Rivesales. A dreadful carnage ensued: but the Saracens were completely outed. Need we add that the booty was recovered, that the captives were set free, and that the beautiful Rose gave her and and her heart to the gallant son of Herail?

This outline of the story, and the extracts which we have elected, will convey some idea of the wildness and excentricity of the plan. Human virtues and vices are not only transformed nto real personages, but the counsels of Heaven and Hell are trangely blended with the ordinary course of human actions; while witchcraft and magic are pressed into the plot, to increase the general confusion. The narrative and descriptive parts are often tediously protracted; and the general air of the composition by no means accords with those remnants of the early Provençal poetry, which have escaped the wreck of time. Yet it would be unfair to deny that many passages in this singular tale display a warm energy of sentiment, and the disordered and overpowering language of genuine passion. In the hands of a writer of correct taste, these discordant materials might be fashioned into a well-constituted and interesting whole.

The minor pieces in the first volume are 1. *The Divine Power*, a *Sirvente, or Serious Lay of the Troubadours.* 2. *A Royal Lay to the magnanimous and noble Pilgrim of Provence.* 3. *The Dispute in the Grove, an Eclogue*; and, 4. *The Return of Elyx into Provence.*

The hymn to *Divine Power* is more curious than sublime. Ever verging on declamation, it wants that august simplicity which forms the essence of sacred poetry. Its finest stanzas, as the editor remarks, are borrowed from the book of Job.

No. 2. the *Royal Lay*, is a species of poem which owes its origin to the Troubadours. It consists of five strophes of eleven verses each, and so constructed that the last verse of the first strophe may suitably terminate the others, as well as the *envoi*, or address, which is a detached stanza of five verses. The subject of the present lay is well intitled to particular commemoration.

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About the year 1240, an unknown gentleman, in a pilgrim's habit, on his return from St. Jago di Compostella, halted at the court of Raymond Berenger, Count of Provence; and, in grateful testimony of the kind reception which he there experienced, he dedicated his time and talents to the service of the Prince. The wisdom and abilities which distinguished his proceedings soon raised him to the highest rank in the state; and, under his administration, four princesses of the house of Provence were married to four crowned heads, and the sovereign and his people largely partook of the public prosperity: but envious courtiers traduced the minister; and he was required to give in his resignation. On taking leave of Berenger, 'Sire,' said he, 'I have long been your faithful servant: I retrieved the public credit, and augmented your resources: but, instigated by the jealousy of your barons, you repay me with ingratitude. I arrived at your court as a poor pilgrim: but in the distinguished station to which you raised me, I lived without pride and without meanness. Give me back my mule, my scrip, and my staff, and I shall return as I came.' Deeply affected with this simple and generous declaration, the Count wished to retain him, but the pilgrim resisted his intreaties, retired into obscurity, and was seen no more.

In the present poem, which manifests some address, and which is not unpleasing in the Languedocian dialect, the state is compared to a vessel, and the pilgrim to an able pilot who rescued it from destruction.

'The pilot, who thus saves a country exposed to imminent danger, is not always one whose feeble and wearied hands shrink from the management of the helm. He is, perhaps, only a passenger, who conceals his name, and throws a modest veil over his glory and his virtues. Like a guardian angel, he no sooner appears than he dispels the tempest, restores serenity to the sky, and creates order out of confusion. Happy the prince, who can appreciate his talents! His vessel, tossed to and fro by the winds, is on the point of being dashed in pieces: but the dextrous pilot rescues it from shipwreck.'

In the third composition, the amatory contention between *Geordi* and *Geli* is conducted in the accustomed style of such competitory eclogues. The shepherds refer the decision of their merits to *Toutoustap*, who, as his name imports, knows every thing: yet he cannot say which of the disputants has the advantage. He therefore tamely compliments them both, and refers them to Elyz, a more sagacious judge. Whether they followed his advice, it were vain to inquire; for we hear no more of Geordi and Geli.

The *Return of Elyz*, in character and structure, approaches to an Idyllium. A Troubadour is supposed to address this poem

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poem to a pilgrim. It displays some natural imagery and brilliancy of language; and the concluding stanza, though not the most animated, is elegantly classical:

'Pilgrim, you now know for whom the tenant of this cottage gathers the jasmin, the scented wallflower, the white violet, roses, and the blooming branches of the orange-tree. You now know in honour of whom we have culled so many flowers, and composed so many lays. I will detain you no longer. The heat has now abated, and smiling evening invites you to continue your journey.—Farewell! When you reach your native country, remember this cottage, and that in it we compose and chant our Doric strains of friendship and of love, in honour of the happy return of the beautiful Elyz.'

We purpose, in a future article, to notice the second volume: not having leisure at present to complete our report.

[*To be continued.*] **Muir.**

ART. V. *OEuvres de* PIERRE CAMPER, *qui ont pour objet l'Histoire Naturelle, la Physiologie, et l'Anatomie comparée*, &c. *i. e.* The Works of PETER CAMPER, which treat of Natural History, Physiology, and Comparative Anatomy. 3 Vols. 8vo. and Folio Atlas of Plates. Paris. 1803. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 2l. 5s. sewed.

WE have repeatedly remarked that the abilities and industry manifested by the late M. CAMPER, in prosecuting the various objects of inquiry which, at different periods, have occupied his attention, merited the highest praise; and the reputation, which they have deservedly procured for him, affords the best inducements for spirited imitation. A general account of his life is prefixed, by his son, to these volumes: but it does not furnish more than the usual particulars which we expect in the biography of men who have been devoted to philosophical research. He was born at Leyden in the year 1722, and at the age of 24 took the degree of Doctor in Philosophy and Medicine. In 1749, during a tour which he made in England, France, and Switzerland, he was appointed Professor of Philosophy, Medicine, and Surgery at Franeker; and, in 1755, he was translated to the chair of Surgery and Anatomy at the Athenæum of Amsterdam, where he was, in three years afterward, also appointed Professor of Medicine. Not finding that he enjoyed the quiet at Amsterdam which was suited to his habits of life, he quitted it in 1761, but retained the title of honorary professor in that capital. He passed two years at his country-house in Friesland, and was then nominated Professor of Medicine, Surgery, Anatomy, and Botany, at Groningen. There he lived till June 1773, when he settled at Franeker, in order to superintend the education of his

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sions. From this period to that of his death in 1789, he was occupied in the prosecution of his favourite studies, in visiting various parts of Europe, and in the performance of many public duties, to which he was called by the wishes of his countrymen. In 1762, he had been appointed a representative in the assembly of the province of Friesland: but, in 1787, he was nominated one of the Council of State, and was, therefore, obliged to reside at the Hague. His death, at the age of 67, was occasioned by a pleurisy.

Two memoirs, by M.M. *Vicq d'Azyr* and *Condorcet*, are also annexed; which place in a favourable view the merits of CAMPER as a man, a philosopher, and a citizen. His publications at different times have been very numerous, but they are not all inserted in the present collection. The nature of most of the subjects, treated in the papers which it contains, necessarily precludes the propriety of giving more than a general notice concerning them.

The first dissertation relates to the Ourang Outang, and some others of the monkey tribe. Here the author examines into the knowlege of these animals which the antients possessed, and considers it as demonstrable that the dissections, which Galen gives in his anatomical works, are those of monkeys, and not of men. The distinguishing form and structure of the Ourang Outang are detailed with great attention; and a peculiarity which it displays in the organization of the throat is minutely described. Immediately below the skin and *Platysma myoides*, two bags made their appearance on each side of the windpipe, the right extending over the clavicle, the left being much less. They were empty, and each of them communicated with the cavity of the larynx, by means of an opening passing between the thyroid cartilage and the *os hyoides*, and terminating at the side of the epiglottis. Some species of monkeys, which the author examined, had one bag of a similar kind, but the possession of two he considers as peculiar to the Ourang Outang.—Galen seems to have been acquainted with this feature in their organization; the uses of which are unknown, except that these cavities can be filled with air, and compressed, at the pleasure of the animal.

In the second memoir, which treats on the double horned Rhinoceros, the author commences with some observations, tending to shew the advantage of natural history in elucidating many points connected with Belles Lettres and Antiquity. The passage in the 22d epigram of Martial, "*De Rhinocerote pugnante cum urso*," has created considerable discussion, but is readily understood, when we advert to these being a species of rhinoceros with two horns:——

"*Namque*

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" *Namque gravem* gemino cornu *sic extulit ursum,*
Jactat ut impositas taurus in astra pilas."

In the dissertation which immediately follows, on the Rein Deer, a conformation is remarked in the throat, resembling that which has been observed above with regard to some kinds of monkeys; there being a bag communicating, in a similar way, with the internal part of the larynx.

The first volume is terminated by conjectures relative to some petrified bones found in the mountain of St. Pierre, near Maestricht.—M. CAMPER considers them as having been the bones of fish.

The greater part of the second volume is occupied with an interesting account of the Elephant, which was published separately, and noticed by us some time ago.—Next succeed two essays, one on the physical reasons which render man subject to more diseases than other animals, and on the means of establishing health which can be derived from comparative anatomy; the other on the origin and the colour of negroes. The first was presented as an answer to the prize question proposed in 1783, by the Batavian society at Rotterdam, but it was not considered as having resolved it so completely as to merit the reward. It takes an ample view of the diseases common to men and other animals, and of the effects of civilization, with the various conditions to which it gives rise, as far as the production of disease is concerned.—The negroes are considered by the author as owing their origin to our first parents, and their colour to 'the long continued effects of the climate in which they lived, the food by which they were nourished, and the diseases to which they were subject.'

Volume the third contains lectures on an epidemic disease of horned cattle; a dissertation on the physical education of children; lectures read to the academy of painting; an account of the generation of the pipa or American toad; observations on the croaking of male frogs; and an account of the structure of the bones in birds.

The lectures on an epidemic disease of horned cattle were delivered at Groningen in 1768, to a mixed audience, during the prevalence of this complaint. It is described as a fever of a putrid and contagious nature, 'by which the blood was vitiated; and, at the same time, inflammation produced in the viscera of the abdomen and breast, and in the throat, tongue, nose, eyes, and sometimes the brain.'—The disease was regarded by M. CAMPER as having arisen from contagion, and possessing the power of affecting the same animal only once. He employed inoculation for this malady with some success:

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but this practice does not appear to have received the full trial which he deemed necessary.

The essay on the physical education of children notices the early care of them, and the subjects of nourishment, instruction, inoculation, and the mode of obviating natural defects. The author's observations on these topics are judicious, though sometimes affected by the prejudices existing in the country in which he lived.

M. CAMPER'S lectures at the academy of painting discuss the manner in which the different passions are depicted on the countenance; the analogy existing between the structure of the human body and that of quadrupeds, birds, and fish; and physical beauty, or the beauty of form.—The various changes, which the different parts of the face experience in different emotions of the mind, are here attributed to the influence of certain nerves, which are particularly affected in those passions, and which exert a power over the muscles to which they are distributed.—The Professor has devoted several plates to the elucidation of his ideas on the connection which exists in the conformation of various tribes of animals; and he recommends this subject to the especial attention of artists, who may hence be able to discover many relations which could scarcely at first be expected. His conclusions on the nature of physical beauty are these:

1st. That no philosopher, or artist, has ever proved or taught what properly constitutes physical beauty.

2dly. That we have no innate idea of this, as we have of moral beauty; and that it is only by means of study that we arrive at the knowlege of what is beautiful in the imitative arts.

3dly. That physical beauty, whether in man and other animals, or in architecture, does not consist in a certain proportion or symmetry of parts.

4thly. That in giving different forms to men and animals, nature has not aimed at endowing them with a certain degree of beauty, but only at bestowing on them what is useful in their particular sphere.

5thly. That all which relates to physical beauty is founded only on tacit consent, habit, and authority.

6thly. That the true and only beauty which exists, and such as the greatest masters have introduced into architecture, painting, and sculpture, can be referred to nothing more than the care which they have taken that their works should imitate Nature as faithfully as possible; while they, at the same time, avoid the faults which necessarily result from the imperfections of vision, and the refraction of light.

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The essay on the structure of the bones of birds, which concludes this work, gives an account of the same peculiar conformation which was described by Mr. John Hunter in the Philosophical Transactions for 1774, and was afterward published in his work on the Animal Œconomy. It appears, however, from the ~~remarks~~ here adduced, that this curious structure was ~~discovered~~ by Professor CAMPER three years before Mr. Hunter's publication of it, and that it was soon afterward made known to many scientific men on the continent.—The account of the Professor's discovery was mentioned in a dissertation read by M. *Charnack*, at a public meeting of the university of Groningen, August 25, 1773, but Mr. Hunter's paper was not read at the Royal Society till the February following.

The plates contained in the atlas accompanying these volumes are well executed, and seem to be absolutely necessary for elucidating many subjects of which they treat.

Our readers will find accounts of ~~other~~ works by this learned physiologist in M. R. Vol. lxxxi. p. 687. Vol. vi. N. S. p. 206. Vol. xii. p. 557. and Vol. xviii. p. 570.

ART. VI. *Histoire Philosophique de la Médecine,* &c. *i. e.* A Philosophical History of Medicine, from its Origin to the Commencement of the Eighteenth Century. By STEPHEN TOURTELLE, Senior Professor in the University of Besançon, Professor in the School of Physic at Strasburg, and Member of several learned Societies. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1804. De Boffe, London. Price 14s.

As the author of this work did not live to see it published, it has come forwards under the auspices of his son; who, with a commendable but injudicious regard to the memory of his father, has introduced into the preface many particulars relating to his illness, and the interest which his family took in it, that can have no claim for notice beyond the immediate circle of friendship. The valuable productions of *Le Clerc* and *Friend*, on the History of Medicine during the more early and the later periods, have afforded M. TOURTELLE very important assistance; and while we give him the credit of industry and judgment in the selection of materials, we must remark that those publications supplied the principal part of the volumes before us.

The History of Medicine is divided by the author into four periods. The first, or that of the antients, comprizes the whole of the space between the earliest annals of medicine, and the time of the Arabs, and is the same to which the researches of *Le Clerc* were confined. In this part of his work,

which occupies the whole of the first and one half of the second volume, the author gives a very full account of the opinions and practice of the antient physicians, particularly Hippocrates, Celsus, Aretæus, and Galen.

M. TOURTELLE's second period extends from the time of the destruction of the library at Alexandria in the sixth to the fifteenth century; and contains short notices concerning Haliabbas, Avicenna, Rhazes, Albucasis, and a few others.

The succeeding extract will give an idea of the state of medicine in France during the latter part of the period mentioned:

'The art of healing was disgraced at Paris by the empirics who practised it; for it was entirely abandoned to women, monks, low-bred men, and in a word to quacks. Except the Jews, who were acquainted with the Arabian authors, and who made medicine a lucrative profession in the greater number of courts, every other physician was plunged in the most vile superstition and the most profound ignorance. Study was not considered necessary to form a physician. Temerity conferred the only right to decide on the lives of men. Those who boasted of being initiated into the mysteries of the profession required only their own testimony in support of their assertions;—the healing art, as well as superstition, always found a certain resource in credulity;—and weakness, fear, and pain, made men submit implicitly to those who promised them relief, or insinuated the existence of concealed evils. Medicine remained a long time, in this capital, in the hands of empirics and monks; and it was not till a late period, that the university of Paris instituted a faculty of physicians. It is believed, with sufficient appearance of truth, that it was not till the reign of Louis VII. in the twelfth century, that medicine was taught in the schools of the episcopal palace; the only schools which then existed, and which had, till then, been confined to theology, law, and the arts. The lectures given there were nothing more than translations from the Arabian physicians.—At this time, the professors changed their name; they rejected the appellation of *Medecins*, which was common to them with the vilest empirics; they considered themselves as the ministers and scrutators of Nature; and on this account they took the name of *Physiciens*, a designation which was generally adopted by all physicians during the reign of Philip Augustus, and which was continued to the time of Francis I. in whose reign they resumed their original title of *Medecins*. The university, in adopting physicians, prevented them from marrying; and it was doubtless the necessity of living as priests, which induced the antient physicians of Paris to become members of that sacred profession. Almost all of them were canons of Paris, of St. Marcellin, or of Amiens. There were even four monk physicians in the first of those cities, so late as the middle of the sixteenth century: but, on entering the faculty of medicine, it was necessary to abjure surgery as a derogatory art. These accepted physicians were only permitted to give advice in diseases, but were prohibited from attending patients at their own houses.

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houses.—Disgraceful complaints, or the diseases of females, were considered as offending the sacerdotal dignity.—Physicians, thus confined within such narrow limits, would have enjoyed a great portion of leisure, if they had not had recourse to a species of quackery. Under the semblance of piety, they offered their advice for sale in the church of Notre Dame. Some patients went thither in person; and such as were unable to go sent their urine or fæces to have their complaints pointed out. Those who were more anxious sent a detail of their symptoms in writing; while others, by means of some persons who had witnessed their sufferings, applied to those charitable physicians who piously sold their advice. Thus the priests were consulted in temples like the antient oracles, and exercised the same functions as the priests of Apollo and Æsculapius. There were also, however, some lay physicians, as *Lanfranc* informs us, who undertook the treatment of every complaint, and who went to visit such patients as were confined to bed: but they were not attached to the university; and to laymen alone was that privilege allowed. Afterward, the university imposed no other law on physicians than celibacy; since the year 1305 it has been no longer necessary, for the purpose of being adopted by the university, to embrace the ecclesiastical state; and the faculty of physic could give to married physicians a dispensation to practise their profession.'

It has been already said that the Jews were, at this time, the principal physicians in Europe; and so much were they in repute, as even to be employed in the service of popes, and in that of the Moorish kings of Spain.—Medicine might be considered as their national profession, but the monks disputed the exercise of it with them; and, in the end, got possession of it, in spite of the decrees of the Council of Trent.

The third period in the History of Medicine comprizes the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, when Europe began to emerge from that state of barbarism in which it had for so many ages been involved. The fourth, and last, is principally confined to the seventeenth century, which was celebrated for the production of many very distinguished physicians.—In this division of the work, notices are given of *Van Helmont*, *Prosper Alpinus*, *Becher*, *Forestus*, *Sanctorius*, *Descartes*, *Sydenham*, *Morton*, *Mead*, *Friend*, *Hoffman*, *Boerhaave*, *Stahl*, *Baglivi*, *Riverius*, and *Etmuller*. In the account of the practice of Sydenham, the author mistakes the opinion of that great man, when he represents him as erring in his supposition that pleuritis and peripneumonia essentially differ from each other. Sydenham's words on this subject are, "*Quam* (speaking of peripneumonia) *ego ejusdem plane indolis cum pleuritide esse arbitror, atque ab illa in eo tantum differre, quod peripneumonia pulmones universalius adficiat. Quin et utrique morbo pari omnino methodo medemur, venæsectione, scilicet, præ cæteris, et medicamentis refrigerantibus.*"

Hoffman is passed over too slightly: but a very ample space is allotted to a detail and examination of the doctrines and practice

practice of *Boerhaave*. Considering, however, the present state of medical opinion, the author seems to us to have taken unnecessary pains to disprove the principles of that celebrated physician.

Vell.

ART. VII. *Nouveau Dictionnaire d'Histoire Naturelle*, &c. i. e. A New Dictionary of Natural History, &c.

[*Article concluded from the last Appendix.*]

THE different periods at which we have received portions of this very respectable publication will, we trust, be admitted as a sufficient apology for the apparently disjointed manner in which we glanced at its merits and contents. In the present article, we shall confine our attention to the eight unnoticed volumes, (which complete the undertaking,) without any particular regard to the order of the subjects discussed.

It is the common fate of compilements to assume a fair appearance at the outset, and to diminish in interest as they advance: but the reverse is the case with the dictionary now under our consideration, of which the latter end is *better* than the beginning. Among many judicious and excellent articles contained in the 16th volume, those relative to the *Eye*, *Pink*, *Egg*, *Goose*, *Bird*, *Olive-tree*, *Orange tree*, *Ortolan*, and *Bread*, are fraught with accurate and substantial information. M. *Parmentier*'s contributions are particularly valuable, as they are immediately connected with practical and economical details; so that the farmer, the cook, and the householder may reap considerable benefit from consulting them. His remarks, for example, on the best methods of preserving eggs will be found a wholesome comment on the *warm* statements of the otherwise correct and cautious *Reaumur*. The latter seems to have supposed that the suppression of evaporation was alone necessary to insure the soundness of an egg for any length of time; without adverting to the disorganization, and consequent corruption, induced by carriage of the commodity. A single jerk may break the delicate vascular ramifications which connect the embryo with the membrane of the yolk, and thus occasion putrefaction. The commodity, therefore, should be transported on a carriage which is suspended on springs, so as to avoid jolting.—It is also recommended to boil eggs hard, on the day on which they are laid, and to put them up in a cool place, where they may safely lie for three or four months. In this state, it is obvious, they will easily bear carriage.—A mixture, composed of a bushel of quick lime, two pounds of salt, and eight ounces of cream of tartar, with a quantity of water sufficient to admit the complete

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complete immersion of eggs, has been known to preserve them fresh for two years.—*Sed paulo* MAJORA *canemus.*

The combining causes of a thunder-storm are at least very ingeniously stated by M. *Libes*; and they are the more deserving of our attention, because they involve a new theory of the *Aurora Borealis.*

'That we may succeed in our inquiry, it is of consequence to remark, 1. That the torrid zone is the favourite theatre of *thunder-storms.* They are unknown in the regions near the poles. It never thunders in Greenland, nor in Hudson's Bay. (Mussembroek, tom. iii. p. 414.) In the temperate zones, *thunder-storms* are more frequent and more violent, in proportion as we approach the tropics; and in the latitude of between 40 and 50 degrees, summer is the usual season of *thunder-storms*, which are always preceded by a suffocating heat.

'These facts, confirmed by a long series of accurate observations, warrant the conclusion that the days, on which *thunder-storms* occur, are marked by a considerable disengagement of oxygen and hydrogen gases, occasioned by the decomposition of water; and, as the atmospheric strata, which we inhabit, contain only oxygen and azotic gases, blended in a certain proportion, we must believe that the hydrogen gas escapes into the upper regions of the atmosphere, where it occupies a place appropriate to its specific weight. The oxygen gas probably serves it as a surrounding vehicle; and the levity of the small bubbles, formed by the gaseous substances, with the additional aid of violent winds, (the usual fore-runners of *thunder-storms*,) determines their elevation in the atmosphere.

'2. During thunder, the electrometer apprizes us of an excess of the electric fluid in the upper strata of the atmosphere; at the same time that a great variety of substances, of which the terrestrial globe and its atmospheric envelope are composed, eagerly re-demand a portion of their natural fluid, which has probably served to volatilize certain bodies, and to impart to them that levity which ascertains their elevation in the atmosphere. Hence thunder presages the restoration of the equilibrium of the electric fluid, or, in other words, its passage from the superior atmospheric strata into the different terrestrial bodies which solicit its return. In this passage, which is accomplished with inconceivable rapidity, the electric fluid, in different points of its course, encounters mixtures of oxygen and hydrogen gases. They immediately combine; and their combination gives rise to violent explosions, and to a mass of water proportioned to the quantity of aeriform fluids which contributed to produce it.

'Who would refuse to the concurrence of the oxygen and hydrogen gases, and of the electric spark, the power of producing the rain which accompanies the flashes of lightning and the noise of thunder? The ingredients of the atmosphere are little else than air and water dissolved in that aeriform fluid. Hence we may ascribe a thunder shower to the circumstance of the atmospheric air parting with the water which it held in solution, or the combination of the bases of the oxygen and hydrogen gases by the electric spark.

'In

'In our attempts to explain a phænomenon, if several insulated causes may produce an effect, we cannot discover to which of these causes the effect is owing, without investigating each of them apart. Agreeably to this principle, we should ask, whether it be probable that water held in solution by the air of the atmosphere should collect in sensible masses, so as to generate rain exactly at the moment when the *thunder-storm* is brewing? It is incumbent on those who maintain this opinion, to explain why thunder showers are sudden and instantaneous; why they fall not till the storm has taken place; why they end immediately with it; and, finally, why they are so favourable to vegetation. These circumstances, combined, attest the influence of the electric fluid on the formation of this sort of rain; which, in course, we can only attribute to the reciprocal union of oxygen gas, hydrogen gas, and the electric spark. The thunder shower commences only when the three elements of its composition happen to meet in the atmosphere; and the absence of any one of those three elements always predicts its termination.

'When, by the intervention of the electric fluid, the bases of the oxygen and hydrogen gases intimately unite, in order to form a thunder shower, this union causes the violent explosions which constitute thunder. Our naturo-electricians believed that they could imitate the latter by means of their machines; and they long confounded it with a few paltry cracklings—with those faint explosions which are produced by the discharge of the Leyden phial. This sort of illusion has passed away; and it is now generally admitted that we cannot imitate, in our apparatus-rooms, the formidable noise of thunder, except by transmitting the electric spark through a succession of *Volta*'s pistols, which contain a duly proportioned mixture of the oxygen and hydrogen gases.

'This explanation of the meteor in question appears to me the more satisfactory, because it is connected with that of the *Aurora Borealis*, a remarkable phænomenon (Article AURORA BOREALIS) which *Patrin* has described with that elegant simplicity which characterizes his pen. I shall here confine myself to a summary explanation.

'1. If the electric spark be made to pass through a mixture of azotic and oxygen gases, the result is nitric acid, nitrous acid, or nitrous gas, according to the proportion which exists between the oxygen and azotic gases, which compose the mixture.

'2. The nitric acid, when it comes in contact with the solar light, assumes more colour and volatility. This observation of *Scheele* suggested to me the following experiment: I placed a receiver on a large plate containing nitric acid, which I exposed to the sun. In a few minutes, the acid became coloured, and the receiver was filled with red and volatile vapours, which continued for a long time, and emitted a light like that of the *Aurora Borealis*.

'3. It is well known that, in the flasks containing nitrous acid, a reddish and volatile vapour, which never condenses, is seen above the acid.

'4. Nitrous gas, in contact with atmospheric air, always exhales ruddy vapours, which fly off into the atmosphere.

'5. The

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'5. The solar heat has very little influence in the polar regions.

'A moment's reflection on the principles which I have just stated, and of which the existence is unquestioned, suffices to prove, 1. That the production of hydrogen gas in the polar regions can hardly be perceptible. 2. That the higher regions of the polar atmosphere scarcely contain any hydrogen gas. 3. That, as often as the equilibrium of the electric fluid is restored in the polar atmosphere, this fluid, in its passage, can come in contact only with a mixture of azotic and oxygen gases. 4. That the electric spark should fix and combine the gaseous substances. 5. That the result of this combination should be a production of nitric acid, nitrous acid, or nitrous gas, according to the proportion which exists between the oxygen and azotic gases which compose that mixture. 6. That the production of nitric acid, of nitrous acid, or of nitrous gas, should give rise to red and volatile vapours, which ascend in the atmosphere, and there constitute the meteor known by the name of *Aurora Borealis*.'

In answer to the question, Why the same appearance is not observable in the torrid and temperate zones, M. *Libes* remarks that the activity and duration of the solar heat, in warm countries, occasion a considerable disengagement of the hydrogen gas; which, in consequence of its levity, escapes into the higher regions of the atmosphere. The electric fluid therefore, in every attempt to regain its equilibrium, encounters a twofold mixture of gases; namely, of the azotic and oxygen, and of the latter and hydrogen. Now we know, by experience, that the electric spark manifests a greater affinity to the second mixture; and that the combination is always accompanied by a loud explosion, and a production of water proportioned to the quantity of aeriform fluids on which the electric spark exercises its activity. Hence the frequency of thunder, lightning, and sudden and heavy rains, in the hot latitudes; and hence the absence of streamers in the same latitudes.

The common supposition, which ascribes the *Aurora Borealis* to a great quantity of the electric fluid accumulated in the polar regions, and animated by movements and colours peculiar to itself, will not abide the test of observation and experiment. It is now an acknowleged fact that the electrical fluid gives out no radiant light, unless it be put in motion *in vacuo*. If, then, we assert that its simple movement is the cause of the northern lights, the appearance must have its origin beyond the limits of the earth's atmosphere: but several reasons concur to prove that this is not the case. This meteor frequently assumes the appearance of an ordinary cloud; it may sometimes be observed at one place and not at another, though the distance between the two places be not considerable; it is occasionally accompanied by a crackling or rustling noise, which is heard on the earth's surface; and it sometimes preserves, for a fixed time, the

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the same elevation above the horizon, which shews that it is affected by the rotatory motion of the globe.

M. *Libes*, who, we are informed, is a young gentleman of great promise, thus concludes his explanation of the term *orage*:

'Let none impute to me the ridiculous pretension of compelling Nature to tell her secret relative to the formation of *thunder-storms* and the *Aurora Borealis*. Meteorology is, and long will be, in its infancy. This species of prediction is founded on the circumstance that most of the meteors are produced far from the sphere of our activity, and by agents which we cannot submit to our investigations. We can, therefore, only suspect the cause of these phænomena, and we can only offer conjectures relative to the mechanism of their formation. To entitle them to be termed *plausible*, they should contravene none of the laws of nature, and they should coincide as nearly as possible with established facts and modern discoveries. The conjectures which I have proposed appear to me to unite these conditions, and thus alone to merit a preference to those vague explanations which naturalists transmit to one another with implicit confidence, though observation and experiment bear witness to their distance from the truth.'

The article *Hurricane*, by the same hand, is short and superficial.

Papilio, *Peach-tree*, and *Pigeon*, are treated at length, and with great ability, in the seventeenth volume: but M. *Patrin*'s new hypothesis of petrifaction, and his account of meteoric stones, will most readily excite the attention of the curious.

It has been commonly supposed that, during the process of petrifaction, the stoney matter, very gradually, and as it were particle by particle, took the place of the vegetable or animal substance, in proportion as the latter suffered decomposition. *Haüy* expressly asserts that, in petrified wood, the organization is destroyed, and that its semblance alone remains. In many cases, however, the finest fibres have preserved their natural position, colour, and ligneous character. Some specimens present agatized worms, moveable in their cells; and others, such as those found in Loch Neagh, in Ireland, strike fire with steel, and yet retain the combustible property of timber. These and various other circumstances, which might be specified, at once overturn the supposition of a previous decomposition of the ligneous principle, and of its being replaced by liquid and agglutinating quartz. The sand which immediately surrounds the large petrified trunks mentioned by *Pallas* is perfectly loose, and can never have submitted to the binding influence of this fancied quartzose liquor. Petrifaction then, according to M. *Patrin*, is not a mechanical but a chemical process, consisting in the combination of gaseous fluids with the constituent principles

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ciples of organized bodies; and producing on the latter a very rapid conversion into a stoney substance, without, in the smallest degree, affecting the arrangement of their molecules: so that neither their forms, nor their colours, are altered by this modification. This petrifying process may be compared to freezing; with this difference, that ordinary congelation is effected by the simple subtraction of caloric, whereas petrifaction is a coagulation occasioned by the introduction of another fluid. The additional weight acquired by petrified bodies is no objection to this theory; for it is well known that the most subtil gaseous fluids possess density, when reduced to a solid state; as oxygen, for example, when it enters into combination with metallic substances. Another remarkable example is the vitreous ore of tin, which is a pure oxide of that metal; and which proves that oxygen is susceptible of condensation, to such a degree as to acquire a specific gravity superior to that of any stone. It is, therefore, highly probable that oxygen acts the principal part in the phænomenon of petrifaction; and that earthy matters are really oxides, as has been conjectured by the most eminent chemists.

Such is a summary statement of M. *Patrin*'s sentiments on this striking subject.

'I could adduce,' adds he, 'many other considerations in confirmation of the theory of siliceous petrification by means of the gaseous fluids: but I shall be contented to refer the reader to the phænomenon of the formation of agates, chalcedonies, and other stones of that nature, in lavas and volcanic tufas; for I deem it impossible to explain this lapidification otherwise than by the theory of gases.

'We frequently meet with porous lavas, of which the cells are so multiplied, that at first their hollow interstices must have equalled their solid contents. These very interstices, which are sometimes a foot in diameter, are now filled with balls of agate or chalcedony, so that the weight of the mass must have at least doubled since the flowing of the lava.

'Now, What reasonable source can we assign to this amazing quantity of chalcedonious matter? Let us even allow that the total weight of the mass has suffered no augmentation, we cannot suppose that this matter has been furnished by the lava itself, since it has experienced no sensible diminution of its density. Besides, some traces of this chalcedonious matter would be observable in the very substance of the lava, especially near the cavities which are filled with it; and we should perceive a sort of transition from the ball of chalcedony to the lava which surrounds it. But this is not the case; on the contrary, the line of demarcation is perfectly clear and defined—here all is chalcedony, there all is pure lava. The same thing takes place with regard to chalcedonious stalactites. Of these I have several still adhering to the very lava from which they have flowed, and this lava is not more siliceous than that which forms the sides of the cavities. In all such instances, the chalcedony appears to be quite foreign

foreign to the lava, though its formation in the latter is perfectly obvious.

'In order, then, to explain the appearance, I can have recourse to no supposition but that which admits the existence of gaseous fluids which have penetrated into the lava, and have combined with other fluids in a gaseous or liquid state, inclosed in the vacant spaces which probably contained a phosphoric principle, analogous to that which is found in animals.

'This phosphoric principle is a prime agent in volcanic phænomena, as I have demonstrated in my theory of volcanos; all the leading ideas of which (and this in particular) have been adopted by the learned observer *Breislak*, as may be seen in the seventh chapter of his Travels, though he has omitted to mention the source whence he borrowed the theory, which he gives as his own. See VOLCANO.

'We may notice still another analogous fact, which may help to explain this lapidification. I mean the case of *fluoric gas impregnated with a siliceous principle*; which, by simple contact with water, suddenly forms a quartzose substance. Why then deny that Nature may execute what we ourselves can devise, and that, with her powerful resources, she may work in a style infinitely superior?'

Respecting the fall of supposed atmospheric stones, the same intelligent author is now abundantly explicit, and avows his conversion to the belief of their existence. In a former part of the work, he had espoused the sceptical side of the question, impelled solely by the love of truth; and he says that the same laudable motive now constrains him to yield to the pressure of accumulating evidence.—For the present, however, we may let the subject *fall to the ground*; because M. *Izarn's* publication lies on our table, and will shortly demand a separate discussion. (See the next Article in this Appendix.)

Under *Pavot*, will be found some useful directions relative to the cultivation of the poppy; a branch of rural economy which we could wish to see introduced into English farming. By a little care and attention, we might thus have excellent oil and unadulterated opium of our own growth.

The articles *Pine*, *Pear-tree*, *Fish*, *Potatoe*, *Hop*, &c. give rise to many just and useful observations in the eighteenth volume. Some valuable hints likewise occur under the heads *Animal*, *Mineral*, and *Vegetable Poisons*. In the case of having swallowed arsenic, immediate vomiting is recommended; and the use of fat broths, to sheath the remaining action of the poison. If a seasonable emetic has been neglected, recourse should be had to a solution of liver of sulphur, and to mineral sulphureous waters, to complete the cure. The careless tinning of copper vessels, and the culinary practice of heightening the green colour of vegetables by the application of verdegrease, are justly reprobated.—In the case of an over-dose of tartar emetic, a warm decoction of bark, taken without delay, has been found

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the most effectual antidote.—A few drops of a solution of liver of sulphur will detect the presence of oxide of lead in wine, by instantly forming a black precipitate.—One of the most singular effects of vegetable poisons is that produced by the vapour which proceeds from the seeds of henbane thrown on a heated iron, or live coal. The persons exposed to this vapour are first seized with fits of extravagant merriment, and then fall into a stupor, which is usually accompanied with fantastical dreams.

The nineteenth volume is not particularly distinguished by copious or interesting articles. Of this description, however, are *Quadruped*, *Quartz*, and *Root*; though the first is perhaps somewhat too diffuse, and the latter is not very satisfactory with respect to the anatomical details. *Respiration*, *Rose-bush*, and *Nightingale* manifest diligence and judgment in their respective authors. Notwithstanding some declamatory sentences, the *Kingdoms of Nature* are discussed in a manner that is calculated to attract attention.

One of the most extended subjects in the twentieth volume is the history and proper treatment of the Canary Bird: but *Willow* is discussed with inconsiderate brevity. *Schorl*, *Salt*, *Serpent*, *Serpentine*, &c. &c. are creditable to their authors.

The accounts of *calcareous* and *fluoric Spar*, of *Tobacco*, *Bull*, and *Amber*, may be selected as most worthy of perusal in the succeeding volume. We have already seen that M. *Patrin* is no tame compiler. His theory of the formation of amber is, we believe, *unique*; though certainly not destitute of plausibility. That this substance belongs not to the bitumens is obvious, he presumes, from the presence of insects which are found inclosed in it, and which a bituminous odour would have repelled. The analysis of amber likewise proves that its origin is not mineral. Let those persons, on the other hand, who maintain that it is a gummy or resinous vegetable juice, specify the vegetable that thrives in all climates, and lives alike under the frozen zone and between the tropics; for amber is found from the gulf of Bothnia to Indostan. Besides, vegetable gums and resins exude gradually through the pores of the tree, and immediately harden on the surface, so as to preclude the *adherence*, and much more the *inclusion*, of insects in their substance. M. *Patrin* had already intimated his own opinion, in his Natural History of Minerals; and having had the satisfaction of obtaining the approbation of some enlightened judges, he has here re-stated it, and unfolded it with increasing confidence:

'In some respects,' says he, 'it approaches to the hypothesis which ascribes the origin of amber to a vegetable juice; for it is, in fact, a juice extracted from an infinite number of different vegetables; in

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one word, I suppose amber to be nothing else than HONEY, modified by time, and by those mineral acids which have converted it into bitumen. It is of consequence to observe, first, that bees are found in all countries, and that every where their honey has the same essential properties:—circumstances which explain the great difficulty respecting the identity of amber in all countries and climates, and which every other hypothesis was far from solving. Secondly, the greatest quantity of amber is obtained on the coasts of countries abounding in bees.'

In confirmation of this last remark, the author reminds us of the large pieces of amber found at the mouth of the *Simetta*, a river which flows at the foot of Mount *Hybla*. With respect to the frequent occurrence of the same substance on the shores of the Baltic, he makes these observations:

'I have seen the forests of Lithuania so crowded with bees, that all the trees which begin to grow hollow from old age are immense hives, affording an asylum to many swarms. These hives are invariably attended by the *phalæna cerella*, which devours the wax of the cells, and the honey flows to the bottom of the hollow of the tree, sometimes in such profusion as to be seen oozing from the fissures of the bark. When these trees are blown down by the wind, they fall into the turbaries, which abound in these forests, and which are almost always impregnated with pyrites and vitriol. The honey, exposed to the action of the sulphuric acid, and of the gases that are evolved during the decomposition of the tree which contains it, undergoes new combinations which make it pass to the state of bitumen. When rivers afterward undermine the soil in which these trees are buried, they roll them to the sea, along with the half-formed amber which they contain, and which is perfected by the salts and bitumen of the waters of the ocean.

'According to this hypothesis, we may easily conceive how amber may be so sullied by extraneous matters as to become nearly opake; for the honey, in its natural state, may readily mix either with differently coloured earths, or with the powder of the decomposed timber; whereas such a mixture can neither take place with bitumen, nor with gums or resins.

'Again, we can very easily conceive how insects, attracted by the honey of which they are so fond, may have entangled and buried themselves in its substance.

'Lastly, the large size of the pieces of amber will no longer appear extraordinary, since, in the same tree, a quantity of honey may be accumulated, sufficiently considerable to form masses of several pounds weight, and of more than a foot in diameter; a phænomenon unprecedented in nature, on the supposition of its being a gum or resin. I therefore apprehend that the hypothesis, which I advance, affords, in all respects, a plausible solution of this great problem.'

Though we have not room to examine the merits of this theory, we are willing to give it publicity, that it may submit to be tried by a British jury.

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On turning to the article *Soil*, from which we expected much important information, we were extremely disappointed to find it dispatched in two very short sentences.

We must not, however, dismiss this volume without pointing to the article *Toxidermia*, which is long, curious, and interesting. By this new term, M. *Dufresne* denotes the preparation and arrangement of the skins of animals, destined to be preserved in cabinets of natural history. It comprises much valuable matter: but, as our extracts have already multiplied beyond expectation, we must abstain from particulars.

For the same reason, we must not dwell on the *Temperature of the Earth*, *Truffle*, *Vegetable*, *Meat*, *Wine*, and various other important and *well digested* articles, which will be found in the twenty-second and twenty-third volumes.

The consideration of M. *Patrin*'s ideas on *Volcanos* would require a separate article. Here we can state only part of the summary of his theory:

'All active volcanos, without exception, are contiguous to the sea, and are situated in those districts in which sea-salt is most abundant.—The volcanos of the Mediterranean absorb the salt which the waters of the ocean are constantly conveying into it, through the straights of Gibraltar.—The primitive schistose strata are the laboratory in which the volcanic materials are prepared by means of a continual circulation of divers fluids: but these strata furnish no part of their own substance.—The sphere of volcanic action may extend beyond these strata, but has no other focus than the vents through which the gases escape, when they are partly dissipated in the atmosphere, and partly reduced to a concrete state by the fixation of oxygen.—The force and duration of the volcanic paroxysms are proportioned to the extent of the schistose beds in which the volcanic fluids are accumulated. These fluids are:

'1. The *muriatic acid*, which, by abstraction of the oxygen from the metallic oxides of the schistus is converted into super-oxygenated muriatic acid.

'2. The *oxygen* of the atmosphere, which constantly replaces in the metals that of which they are deprived by the muriatic acid.

'3. The *carbonic gas*, which the water absorbs from the atmosphere, and transmits to the schistus, which always abounds in coal.

'4. The *hydrogen* which results from the decomposition of water. Part of this hydrogen is ignited by electrical explosions, and part, united with the carbonic acid, forms oil, which becomes petroleum, by its combination with the sulphuric acid. It is this petroleum which communicates a bitter taste to sea-water.

'5. The *electric fluid* which is attracted from the atmosphere, chiefly by the metals contained in the schistus. *Sulphur* seems to be the most homogeneous portion of this fluid in a concrete state. *Phosphorus* is a modification of it, and contributes to fix the oxygen.

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'6. The *metalliferous fluid*. It forms iron in lava, gives birth to metallic veins, and is the colouring principle in organized bodies. Its integral substance is iron, and its decomposition produces the other metals.

'7. Lastly, *Azotic gas*. To this we ought probably to attribute the formation of the masses of carbonat of lime ejected by Vesuvius, and of the calcareous earth contained in lava.'—

We now hasten to intimate the distribution of the concluding volume.—It opens with thirty-two pages of additions, which were procured when the work was in the press. The greater part of this supplement, which we expected would have been more complete, relates to omissions in ornithology. An interesting extract is also given from *Cuvier*'s Memoir on the *Palæotherium*, published in the 16th No. of the Annals of the Museum.—Next follows an index of the Latin names. In this catalogue, the specific appellations are not treated with more respect than in the body of the work. Their frequent omission is certainly to be regretted.—The editor's advertisement is a convenient key to the systematic use of the work, and a suitable introduction to the synoptical tables.—An explication of the technical distinctions and characters, according to which the productions of the three kingdoms of nature are classed, is neatly laid down in eighty pages, and illustrated by twenty-eight plates.—The synoptical view of the orders, classes, families, genera, &c. extends to 238 pages, and is enriched by some valuable notes.—An index to the plates, and an alphabetical list of the numerous subscribers, terminate the whole.

We formerly hinted that the press-work of this publication was correct and elegant: but we cannot approve of the occasional use of a small type. The latter is sufficiently distinct for the purposes of consultation; and its *uniform* adoption would have diminished the number of the volumes: but the blending of the two sizes, which frequently occurs in the discussion of the same article, has an unpleasant effect. We may also be permitted to hint, that a quarto or a folio form would have been more advantageous for the developement of the figured objects. The best of the plates are engraved by *Tardieu*.

To conclude: this alphabetical body of Natural History, with all its omissions and inequalities, deserves to stand first in the list of similar productions.—Another performance, conducted on nearly the same plan, will shortly solicit our notice.

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ART. VIII. *Des Pierres tombées du Ciel*, &c. *i. e.* A Treatise on Stones fallen from the Clouds; or, Atmospheric Lithology; exhibiting the Progress and actual State of the Science; a View of the Phænomenon of *Thunder-Stones*, *Showers of Stones*, *Stones fallen from the Heavens*, &c. several unpublished Observations, communicated by M.M. *Pictet*, *Sage*, *Darcet*, and *Vauquelin*; with an Essay on the Theory of the Formation of the *Stones*. By JOSEPH IZARN, M.D. Professor of Natural Philosophy, Member of the Society of Sciences, Belles-Lettres, and Arts, of Paris, &c. &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 430. Paris. 1803. Imported by de Boffe.

THE subject of *atmospheric stones* has of late frequently attracted our attention, and, in common with many scientific men, has excited our scepticism. In the preceding article, (p. 496.) it again came before us; and we referred to the separate work of which we are now to enter on a consideration, in discussing what Dr. IZARN is pleased to dignify somewhat prematurely with the name of Science. When any extraordinary appearance is stated to have taken place, the public are intitled to all the force of evidence of which the case is susceptible; and the fall of stones from the atmosphere is a circumstance so remote from the common course of events, and apparently so repugnant to the ordinary train of our conceptions, that we cannot give it credence on slight or doubtful testimony.

In his first section, which is by far the most voluminous, the learned Doctor marshals his "cloud of witnesses" in pompous, but partial array. By confining his reports to facts and opinions published in France, since the year 1700, he robs his creed of the support which it might derive from prior and foreign relations, a few of which are noted only incidentally. The common-place remarks, by which he prefaces the French accounts, are not the less insignificant, because they are expressed in solemn and methodical diction; while several of the modern narratives do not bear directly on the subject of discussion. A more liberal and regular procedure would be to select, in chronological order, some of the most striking instances which record the alleged fact, in remote and more downward periods; and to dwell with some minuteness on such of the recent accounts as have produced conviction on the minds of many persons. In collecting and digesting the antient recitals, considerable assistance may be derived from M. FALCONET's paper on the *Batilia*, KING's *Remarks concerning Stones said to have fallen from the Clouds*, ZAHN's *Specula Physico-Mathematica Historiana*, and GEMMA's *Fisica Sotteranea*.

We shall now shortly lay before our readers the amount of such cases as the author has thought it proper to register, and

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which have not been announced in some of our preceding articles.

No. 1. is an extract of a paper by M. *Lemery*, disavowing his belief in the vulgar notion of *thunder-bolts (pierre de tonnerre)*, but admitting the probability of a mineral substance being fused by lightning on the spot where it is found.

2. A short account of a shower of fire, which is asserted to have fallen at Quesnoy, at two different periods.

3. An extract from M. *Freret*'s paper on the prodigies recorded by the antients. The passages which relate to volcanos, showers of blood, &c. might have been omitted, being as foreign to the subject as the shower of fire just mentioned. Some other examples are more in point. 'In the second year of the 78th Olympiad, there fell from the clouds, in broad day, a stone, near the river Negos, in Thrace. Pliny assures us that it was exhibited in his time, and that it was *magnitudine vehis, colore adusto.*' The latter circumstance coincides with the dark coating observable on atmospheric stones.—According to Paul Lucas, an eye-witness, a stone fell from the air, at Larissa, in Macedonia, in the month of January 1706. It weighed about 72lbs., resembled the dross of iron, and was seen to proceed from the north, with a loud hissing, apparently enveloped in a small cloud, from which it burst, and fell with a very loud explosion.

'The celebrated *Gassendi*, whose accuracy is allowed to have equalled his knowledge, relates that, on the 27th of November 1627, when the sky was very clear, he saw a burning stone, apparently four feet in diameter, fall on mount *Vaiser*, between the towns of *Guillaumes* and *Perne* in Provence. It was surrounded by a luminous circle of different colours, like a rainbow; and its fall was accompanied by a noise like that of many cannons fired at once. This stone weighed 59lbs. It was of a dark metallic colour, and very hard. Its weight was to that of marble as 14 to 11.'

4. An account of a shower of common and very fine sand, which fell in the Atlantic, at eight or nine leagues from land, on the 6th of April 1719, and which continued from ten o'clock at night till one o'clock P. M. of the following day.

Nos. 5, 6, 7, and 8. treat of *Cerannia*, or thunder-stones, and the *reproduction* of flint, but have no immediate reference to *atmospheric lithology*.

9. A view of *Muschembroek*'s sentiments relative to extraordinary showers, including those of stones, which he ascribes to earthquakes.

10. We make the subsequent extracts from M. *de Lalande*'s narrative published in the Historical Almanac of the rovince of Bresse, for 1756:

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'In the month of September 1753, about one o'clock in the afternoon, the weather being very warm and serene, without any appearance of clouds, a great noise was heard like the firing of two or three cannons. Though of very short duration, it was audible at the distance of six leagues in every direction.—This noise was loudest in the neighbourhood of Pont de-Vesle. A hissing sound, like that of a squib, was likewise heard at Liponas, a village three leagues from Pont-de-Vesle, and four from Bourg. On the same evening, there were found at Liponas and at Pin, a village near Pont de-Vesle, and three leagues from Liponas, two blackish masses, of a figure nearly circular, but very unequal, which had fallen on ploughed ground, into which they had sunken half a foot by their own weight. One of them weighed about twenty pounds. They were broken, and the fragments were shewn to all the curious.

'A similar noise was heard on St. Peter's day, in 1750, in Lower Normandy; and a mass very nearly of the same nature with that which I have just described, but much larger, fell at Niort.

'One of the stones which I have mentioned, weighing eleven pounds and a half, may be seen at Dijon, in the museum of M. *Varenne de Beost*, principal secretary to the States of Burgundy, and correspondent of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris.'

From the description and rude analysis of the first of these bodies, we are warranted to infer that it resembled, in various respects, those which have been more recently described.

11, and 12. For the subject of these two numbers, see the Philos. Transact. of the Royal Society of London, P. 1. for 1802.; or p. 41 of the 39th volume of our New Series. M. IZARN has inserted the details at considerable length.

13. M. *Gronberg*'s arguments against the popular belief in thunder-stones. Like *Lemery*, this naturalist is of opinion that pretended thunder-stones are mineral substances, fused by lightning on the earth's surface.

14. This number contains some interesting and circumstantial communications from M.M. *Pictet* and the younger *Darcet*, concerning the descent of stoney and metallic substances. We regret that we cannot make room for them. M. *Saint-Amand* may, however, be allowed to speak for himself:

'*To M. Pictet, one of the Editors of the Bibliotheque Britannique.*

'On the perusal of the second of the interesting letters which you addressed from England to your fellow-journalists, and in which you treat of stones supposed to have fallen from the clouds, I resolved to acquaint you of a fact, in support of the new ideas which seem to originate in that subject; and on which I did not seriously reflect, till I read your letter, inserted in Nos. 135, and 136, of the *Bibliotheque Britannique*.

'On the 24th of July 1790, about nine o'clock in the evening, a very considerable ball of fire appeared at Agen, and was also observed in the neighbouring departments. After this meteor had traversed a

certain space in the atmosphere, leaving behind it a luminous train, which was visible for at least fifty seconds, it burst with an extraordinary noise and sparkling. In numbers 23 and 24 of the *Journal of useful Sciences*, for 1790, you will find the description which was then given of this meteor by one of my fellow-countrymen; and also the reasonings of *Bertholon*, editor of the Journal, on the fall of stones, with which that of the meteor was said to be accompanied. Being in habits of correspondence with *Bertholon*, I transmitted to him my countryman's narrative, and mentioned the reports concerning the stones in question.

'After we had amused ourselves for some time with what we considered as a popular fable, I wished to indulge the frolic of giving public authenticity to *such an absurdity*, and actually requested the formality of a judicial examination into the evidence of the fall of these stones. Shortly afterward, to my no small surprise, I was favoured with the result of this examination: but in this account, I saw only a new proof of the credulity of the inhabitants of the country. I sent it to *Bertholon*, who, viewing it in the same light, published it in numbers 23 and 24 of his Journal, for 1791. Thus this public instrument, signed by the mayor and procurator of the community, was treated as a false, or at least an illusory attestation; and a note which was transmitted to me with the declaration, and which included the testimony of three hundred persons, shared the same fate, because we regarded the attested fact as obviously false, and *physically impossible*.

'Since that time, the whole proceeding had been effaced from my memory. I had forgotten the meteor, the stones, and the judicial declaration, when the reading of your letter recalled the phænomenon, which now appeared to me worthy of more serious attention. On perusing the description of the stones, which were reported to you to have fallen from the clouds, I recollected that they had sent me a specimen of those of which the fall was attested, together with the declaration; and I ran to my cabinet, in which I had accidentally preserved this specimen. What was my surprise, I may say my delight, when I recognized in this specimen a striking analogy with those which you describe. It is impossible not to be very much astonished at the coincidence of the burnt surface, granular fracture, and the metallic appearance of the inside of the mass.

'This new observation of a fact which seems to conspire with many others to alter our received notions on this phænomenon, has appeared to me worthy of being communicated to you. If it produces not conviction in my mind, it at least appears to me very remarkable that all the stones, to which the same origin is ascribed in different countries, exhibit precisely the same characters; and I am perfectly convinced, that, notwithstanding the apparent physical absurdity of the alleged fact, we should suspend our judgment, and not precipitately set down the fact as impossible.

'I am, &c.

'SAINT-AMAND, *Professor of Natural History*
'*in the Central School of Agen.*'

Nos. 15, 16, and 17. These articles relate to the Earl of Bristol's letter to Sir William Hamilton, to Mr. King's Tract on Fallen Stones,

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Stones, and to the phænomenon observed near Ville Franche; —on all of which we have already touched in vol. xxxix. p. 41., xxi. p. 425., and xlii. p. 407. of our New Series.

Nos. 18, 20, and 21. contain the observations of *Chladni*, *Pallas*, *A. G. Duluc*, *Patrin*, and others, on the mass of native iron in Siberia. As the *fall* of this mass rests on a doubtful tradition of the Tartars, we forbear to trouble our readers with the contending surmizes and conjectures of the learned.

19. *Barthold*'s analysis of the Ensisheim stone is here detailed at full length. We hinted the *result* in our 39th vol. N. S. p. 41.—In a historical point of view, it may be of consequence to remark that an old chronicle and concurring tradition fix its descent, with some degree of circumstantiality, in 1492.

22, and 23. *Pictet*'s Letter on the papers of Messrs. Greville and Howard. We have already noticed the papers themselves in our 39th and 42d volumes, cited above.

24. An algebraical demonstration of the possibility of stoney substances being driven off from the moon into the earth's prevailing attraction. We can quote only the conclusions:

'Hence we infer that, taking for granted the existence of a propelling cause at the moon's surface,—a cause adequate to the projection of bodies in every direction beyond the sphere of her attraction,—a great many of these bodies would revolve in space, as satellites to our planet, while scarcely any but those which were driven off at small angles would fall on the earth's surface.

'To determine the motion of a body projected from the moon's surface, and submitted to the combined action of that satellite and the earth, is a problem of the same kind as to calculate the perturbations of a comet which happens to pass very near a planet. In the present state of analysis, the perfect solution of this problem would be impossible. For the sake of obtaining a first approximation, we have divided the curve described by the moving body, into two parts, viz. that which is included within the sphere of the moon's attraction, and that which is comprehended beyond that sphere. In the calculation of the first part, we have overlooked the action of the earth on the moving body; and in the calculation of the second, we have overlooked that of the moon. In order, then, to rectify this first approximation, it would now be necessary to consider the earth's action in the first part of the curve, and that of the moon in the second part, as perturbing forces, whose perturbations may be calculated by means of known formulas. In this way, the motion of the projected body may be determined with sufficient accuracy: but ulterior approximations would require very complex calculations, and that which we have given should satisfy inquirers into the present question.

'From the whole of the preceding reasoning, we may conclude that a communication between the moon and the earth is *physically possible*; and it was from his conviction of this possibility, that M. *de Laplace* has prevailed with the French naturalists not to reject the phæno-

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phænomenon as they had hitherto done, for want of being able to assign its physical cause.'

25. *Vauquelin*'s Memoir on stones fallen from the atmosphere, read to the National Institute. The most valuable part of this paper relates to the chemical analysis of the Yorkshire and Benares stones, and to the iron which is obtained from such bodies. This iron is dissolved easily, and with effervescence, by all the acids which act on it in its ordinary state: but, instead of yielding hydrogen gas in purity, it gives it out very sensibly sulphurated. This sulphurated hydrogen gas presents a phænomenon not hitherto observed in its combination with water, namely, a very rapid decomposition. When kept for some days in a flask, very closely corked, many white scales are observable at the bottom of the water. The latter is destitute of odour, and no longer precipitates the solutions of lead. The iron, moreover, contains nickel combined with it, in the state of a triple salt. The presence of nickel and sulphur sufficiently explains why this iron is white, harder, and less ductile than ordinary.

We have now given a summary of Dr. IZARN's first section. The conclusions which he draws from it are;

'1. That very considerable masses have sometimes fallen to the surface of the earth. 2. That these masses, penetrated by fire, roll in the atmosphere, like burning globes, which diffuse light and heat to great distances. 3. That they seem to have received a motion parrallel to the horizon, though they really describe a curve. 4. That they become soft, or are fused into a paste-like consistency, as is proved by their varnished surface, and the impressions formed on that surface by the bodies which they encounter. 5. That they have fallen in England, Germany, Italy, France, and the East Indies. 6. That all these stones resemble one another in their physical characters and chemical composition.'

A more remarkable instance of the fall of stones than any which the author has recorded, and which, if we rightly recollect, occurred about the time that his work issued from the press, has been related with artless simplicity by M. *Marais*, an inhabitant of L'Aigle, in Normandy; and, in more scientific language, by M. *Biot*, member of the Institute, who was commissioned by government to investigate the fact. This gentleman observes, in his truly wonderful report, that the district in which the stones were precipitated forms an elliptical extent of nearly two leagues and a half in length, and of about one in breadth; the greater dimension being in a direction from south-east to north-west, with a declination of about twenty-two degrees, thus curiously coinciding with the magnetic meridian. The largest stone which fell weighed about

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about seventeen pounds and a half, and the smallest which the reporter collected, about one thousandth part of that weight. The whole number of stones exceeded *two or three thousand.* For other particulars relative to this extraordinary phænomenon, we must refer to the *Journal de Physique*, for Prairial, year xi. and the *Journal des Debats*, 14 Thermidor, of the same year.

The second section is intitled, 'A critical examination of the opinions which have been hitherto advanced, both with respect to the reality of the *fall of stones from the atmosphere*, and with respect to their origin and formation; exhibiting the progress of the human mind relative to that phænomenon.'

In reviewing the early documents which have been transmitted to us on this subject, the author justly remarks that the incident, without being sufficiently rare to remain wholly unknown, was so extraordinary as to be reckoned supernatural. Hence the truth was exaggerated or distorted; and hence such a singular event was uniformly connected with ideas of superstition. The craft of the statesman likewise contributed to associate it, in the minds of the vulgar, with the passing train of political occurrences. They who subsisted on the credulity of the public, assigned it a place among auguries and presages; till, at last, it was involved in the common proscription of pagan prodigies.

From *Lemery*'s explanation of thunder-stones, published in 1700, M. IZARN dates the origin of the common error which confounds the fall of meteoric stones with real lightning; a solution of the difficulty which, as he shews, in treating of some of the subsequent reports, is inadmissible.

In regard to M. *Geoffrois*' account of the showers of fire at Quesnoy, the author insinuates that something should have been said about a residuum. Yet it is extremely probable that, had such existed, it would have been remarked by some of the spectators; and it is not necessary that every fire-ball, which explodes, should leave a deposition behind it: on the contrary, we know that the reverse often takes place.

To M. *Freret*, the author ascribes much judgment in the arrangement of his materials; and much credit for sturdily asserting that showers of stones and fiery meteors are true and real, and that it would be gross injustice to insult the good faith of the antients who mention them in their writings: but he successfully combats *Freret*'s hypothesis, and that of *Gassendi*, which attribute their appearance to the explosive force of volcanos.

The opinions of M. M. *de Jussieu* and *Mahudel*, which resolve thunder-stones into instruments and weapons used in the rude

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rude stages of society, are not more respected. As they trench not materially, however, on the main subject of the present treatise, they are scarcely intitled either to insertion or refutation.

Musschembroek is praised for his belief in the fall of stones from the clouds: but he is censured for his assertion that their formation cannot take place in the atmosphere. Several passages, here quoted from his writings, seem to imply the contrary.

The report of the Academy, on the stone presented by M. *Bachelay*, is represented as grounded on the prejudice of its being supposed a thunder-stone; and as involving a formal denial of the simple matters of fact which accompanied its presentation.

From the author's comments on No. 14. we extract the ensuing paragraph:

'The letter from M. *Darcet*'s brother contains a very important observation, viz. the soft state of most of these stones in falling, and the coating of straws which was found on the under-sides of some of them: circumstances which seem to prove that their softness was not owing to a great degree of heat, since the straws were not consumed. In the case of the shower which occurred in Ireland, the matter became hard and compact after it fell. This precious observation of M. *Darcet* explains the *oval* and *flattened* form of most of the stones produced by this meteor. The same will be observed in the description given by M. *Goyon d'Arzas*; whereas the stoney products of many other meteors of this kind are described as round or triangular. The rest of the description is perfectly analogous to all those which have been given of the other stones; and the substances which the latter have yielded by analysis are not different, as has been seen in M. *Vauquelin*'s memoir.'

The Sienna stones are pertinently quoted as an example of the different manner in which we are disposed to contemplate an extraordinary appearance when insulated, and the same appearance when connected with others of a similar description. With the exception of Professor *Soldani*, the Tuscan naturalists immediately concluded that the stones proceeded from some electrical or volcanic explosion, because they fell after a very violent storm, and on the day subsequent to one of the most terrible eruptions of Vesuvius. 'As for us, on the contrary, who now view this fact in conjunction with so many others, and who know that the stones which fell at Sienna betray the same physical and chemical characters with all the others which have fallen during a perfect calm, under a cloudless sky, during the brightest moon-shine, &c.—we cannot help viewing it in a quite different light, and especially as independent of every volcanic eruption, and of every idea of a tempest.'—To Mr. King's hypothesis, which assigns the ashes of

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of Vesuvius as the materials of these concretions, it is objected that the products are similar in all the cases in which an analysis has been instituted; that in most of these cases, no connection whatever can be traced with a volcanic eruption; and that it is, therefore, unavailing to lay hold of an accidental circumstance in a particular instance.

We shall not at present stay to examine the Doctor's strictures on the speculations of *Chladni*, and others, on the insulated mass of native iron in Siberia; because, as stated above, we do not consider the subject of these speculations as properly belonging to the present inquiry.—With respect, however, to the Ensisheim stone, it is of importance to note that *Vauquelin* found it to contain exactly the same substances as those which are reported to have fallen from the atmosphere.

The observations of Mr. Greville, Mr. Howard, and M. *Vauquelin*, as completing the body of evidence in favour of the physical fact, coincide with the author's sentiments. We need not now dwell on the refutation of M. *Patrin*'s scepticism, since that gentleman has formally published his recantation, and is now a firm believer in the *fall*.

From his examination of the facts and opinions contained in the first section, Dr. Izarn draws the following inferences:

'1. That the fall of solid bodies on the earth is a phænomenon, so far as we can perceive, as antient as the world.—2. That it has been observed from the remotest antiquity, and that its extreme rarity was then of itself a sufficient reason for having it classed among supernatural events.—3. That in less distant periods, the state of human knowlege would induce those, whose business it was to explain the appearances of nature, to believe that such an event was impossible.—4. That nothing less than such a combination of circumstances, as has lately occurred, could give such weight to the evidence of the fact as to convince all but determined sceptics.—5. That this evidence results, first, from the perfect conformity of the circumstances which have accompanied the fall of these different masses; secondly, from the not less striking conformity exhibited by the masses themselves, both in their physical characters and chemical results, though collected in countries very remote from one another, and at very different periods; thirdly, from the impossibility of selecting, from the whole known range of solid bodies on the earth, any substances analogous to these masses.—6. That, in short, it is henceforth equally nugatory to attempt to confute or to confirm the fact, and that we must now resolve to apply our minds to explain the principles on which it depends.'

It is not our intention to reject the legitimacy of these deductions; although their latitude be, in some respects, liable to objection, and some of the premises may be challenged by the incredulous. We shall only express our wishes, that the author had given more expansion and interest to this second part

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of his work, and that he had sifted the evidence of the various facts with more patience and discernment.

His third section is intitled, 'An essay on the theory of the formation of stoney and metallic bodies in the atmosphere, founded on the most received and *unhypothetical* principles of Natural Philosophy.' We regret that we cannot confirm the import of these magnificent pretensions. Having expended so much of our room on the principal points alleged in support of the general fact, we cannot afford to follow the Doctor through the multiplied windings of his pedantic reasoning. It is, nevertheless, incumbent on us to remark that his arguments, when stript of a mass of scholastic jargon, appear to be plausible and ingenious; and we cordially agree with him when he recommends to his readers to follow him, in this part of his inquiry, step by step, before they anxiously hasten forwards to the results, and view the latter without regard to their due dependencies.

For the present, we must be contented to observe in a few words that, after having laid down some general maxims relative to natural appearances,—illustrated the principle that substances may exist in a solid, liquid, or gaseous modification, without undergoing any change of identity,—and estimated the application of this recognized fact,—the theorist arrives at these four conclusions:

'1. That there must exist, in the gaseous mass which envelopes our globe, different aeriform substances which are unknown to us, which are mostly *insulated* by one another, and *disposed in spherical masses* (*massées sphériquement*) by the pressure which is exercised on them in all directions.—2. That detonations take place in the atmosphere, which are not the consequence of electrical phænomena; and which, perhaps, have nothing in common with electricity.—3. That we ought not to ascribe every luminous meteor to the combustion of hydrogen, since the phænomena present us only with a disengagement of light, which may be effected by any gaseous substance passing into another state.—4. Lastly, That the disengagement of light does not necessarily imply that of caloric; and that the more vivid it is, the less are we warranted to state it as a cause of fusion, vitrification, &c.'

Again; 'Gaseous substances, arranged in spherical masses, in the upper regions of the air, being admitted, the various agitations of the atmosphere should naturally waft some of these masses from the medium which *insulates them*, into a medium capable of combining with them. If the combination begins, the disengagement of light is explained. In proportion as the combination advances, the specific gravities are changed; and, consequently, a change of place will commence, and that on the quarter which presents least resistance, or where the medium is most rarified,—in course, rather towards the south than the north. Hence most fire-balls are observed to move from

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from north to south, or from north-east to south-west. Motion being once impressed, the mass traverses other media, that may furnish new principles, which, still increasing the weight, determine the curve; and when, at length, the principles which are at work, and which issue in all directions, have attained the requisite proportion for extinguishing *the elements* in the birth of *the compound*, the principal operation is announced by the explosion, and the product takes its place among the solids.

'Hence it is obvious that this theory explains the phænomenon in its most minute details, and even when the phænomenon is incomplete. The appearance is, in fact, only a particular case of a general operation, to which my theory is equally applicable.'

By some very dextrous management of his spherical gaseous masses, and with the help of double, treble, and nicely reduced combinations, M. IZARN concocts a subtle explanation of showers of sand, of winds, and of metalliferous vapours;—but let us hear the conclusion of the whole matter:

'Each of these bodies then, strictly speaking, is only a MINERAL ABORTION,—*a premature union of gaseous principles*, combined in trouble and disorder, by perturbing circumstances; while, in the natural course of their destiny, they would proceed separately, and in silence, to their prototypes on the surface or in the bowels of the earth. This fact, therefore, is a mere anomaly in the grand act of mineralization.'

We shall now take leave of this champion of atmospheric lithology, with a bow as *formal* and *profound* as the sapient instruction with which he has favoured us.

Muir.

ART. IX. *Les Amours Épiques*, &c. *i. e.* Love Epics, an Heroic Poem, in six Cantos, containing a Translation of Episodes on Love, composed by the best Epic Poets. By PARSEVAL GRANDMAISON. 12mo. pp. 250. Paris. 1804. London, De Boffe. Price 3s. 6d. sewed.

IN the preface to this small publication, we are informed that the author's avocations were at one period of his life of a nature so totally uncongenial with the muses, as entirely to preclude all intercourse with these celestial personages: but a change of unforeseen circumstances, turning up on the wheel of Fortune, brought him the desired leisure to enter the lists of Apollo, and to dedicate his services to the fascinating family of the Nine. The plan of this work is well conceived, ingenious, and interesting; being designed to form a combination of amatory episodes, with the narrative part of the most celebrated epic poets;—an union kindly intended, as the author tells us, to produce an acceptable variety to the reader, and to enable him, when he is chilled with horror at the ferocity of Achilles, to melt his ice in the parting milder scenes between Hector and Andromache.

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With a stroke of his wand, the poet conjures up six of the most celebrated bards, whom he orders to the Elysian grove; and there seated, each with his lyre in his hand, they rehearse, by turns, one of their own favourite songs. This band is composed of Homer, Virgil, Tasso, Ariosto, Milton, and Camoens. Homer takes the precedency; which he justly claims both on account of seniority, as being a great, great, great, grandfather to the rest, and as also being super-excellent in the profession. His song illustrates the truth of the author's remark: for our wounded feelings, on seeing Hector dragged round the walls of Troy, induce us to turn our eyes impatiently to the love episode, which Tasso promises in the next song. It is the natural propensity of the human mind to grasp every idea of pleasure that presents itself; and though conscious of the impracticability of any version doing complete justice to a transcendently beautiful original, we unwarily participate in the enthusiasm of this poet: who, like a true knight-errant in literature, shrinks from no enterprize, though he himself acknowleges its magnitude, and almost insurmountable difficulties. We, therefore, jump with him into the enchanting and enchanted scenery of Armida's bower:—but we confess that we looked as blue as the bill of the Italian warbler, when we hear the pretty song which he sings in Tasso's grove imitated by the pert chirping of a little French cock-sparrow.—Here, however, the critic smooths his angry brow, and excuses the poet; convinced that it is impossible to do more than he has done: which is, to give a faithful translation of this charming morsel ——

" *Deh mira (egli canto) spuntar la rosa*
Dal verde suo modesta e verginella,
Che mezzo aperta encora, e mezzo ascosa
Quanto si mostra men, tanto è più bella
Ecco poi nudo il sen gia baldanzosa
Dispiega: ecco poi langue, e non par quella
Quella non par, che desiata innante
Fu da mille donzelle e mille amante."

Those who have never heard the Italian bard may not be displeased with the French songster:

" *Hélas! voyez, dit il, cette modeste rose,*
Vierge encore, aux regards elle se cache, et n'ose
Dérober son trésor à sa verte prison;
Elle fait poindre à peine un timide bouton;
Bientôt, en soulevant son voile qu'elle entr'ouvre,
A moitie s'enveloppe, à moitié se découvre,
Et moins elle se montre, et plus elle a d'attraits;
Mais déployant enfin tous ses charmes secrets,
Elle s'épanouit, et deja languissante
Cette rose n'est plus la rose éblouissante

Dont

Dont les jeunes beautés, dont les jeunes amants
Respiroient les parfums, goûtoient les agréments.'

The same critical remarks apply equally to Ariosto; namely, that it is impossible to give an adequate idea of the beauty of his episodes by a French translation. Hitherto, we keep our temper, and are rather pleased than angry at the hardihood of our literary knight: but when he sets his foot on the hallowed ground of the most sublime of our English bards, Milton, we *could* be indignant:—still, however, we forbear. M. GRANDMAISON, from not understanding the majestic march of our blank verse, is unable to perceive the ludicrous effect produced by the change into paltry diminutive rhiming couplets: but to us the scene exhibits a dwarf supporting the train of a giant. Under this consideration of the work before us, it may appear invidious to comment on the beautiful passages which are here metamorphosed: but we must perform our task. We do not wish to put fetters on genius, yet we require that judgment should be its vigilant superintendant, and keep it within its prescribed boundary.—Let us now attend to Milton; who, we are told, has taken his lyre in his hand:

'*Alors Milton, prenant sa lyre entre ses mains,*
Se prépare à chanter le premier des humains:
La foule avidement et l'entoure et le presse:
Il exhale en ces mots sa POETIQUE IVRESSE.'

We must first listen to Milton's song, in his own language, and afterward ask ourselves whether it be possible for us to recollect it in its masquerade dress.—We give the description of the garden of Eden, and the discovery of the happy pair by Satan: Paradise Lost, vol. i. book iv. page 262.

"So on he fares, and to the border comes
Of Eden, where delicious Paradise,
Now nearer, crowns with her inclosure green,
As with a rural mound, the champain head
Of a steep wilderness, whose hairy sides
With thicket overgrown, grotesque and wild,
Access deny'd, and over head up grew
Insuperable height of loftiest shade,
Cedar, and pine, and fir, and branching palm,
A sylvan scene; and as the ranks ascend
Shade above shade, a woody theatre
Of stateliest view. Yet higher than their tops,
The verd'rous wall of Paradise up sprung:"—

Thus sang the English Poet, and *thus sings* the French:—

'*Le mont d'Eden s'élève en des* champs *fortunés,*
Ses pieds sont de buissons par tout environnés

Et, par tout l'entourant, d'inaccessibles roches
De ces flancs escarpés défendent les approches;
Sur ces flancs s'élevoient de longs et * noirs *sapins,*
Des cedres, des palmiers, de vénérables pins,
Qui montant par degrés formoient de verds étages,
Levoient pompeusement ombrages sur ombrages,
Superbe amphithéâtre, et champêtres atours,
Qui paroient de ce mont les immenses contours.
' Plus haut sur les sommets de ces arbres augustes,
*S'arrondissoit en circle une chaîne d'*arbustes,
Formant du paradis les agrestes remparts,
D'où l'œil dans les vallons plongeoit de toutes parts.'

" ——— Now gentle gales,
Fanning their odoriferous wings, dispense
Native perfumes, and whisper whence they stole
Those balmy spoils."

' Là, mille frais zéphyrs sur leur aile embaumée,
Faisoient voler des fleurs l'essence parfumée.'

These are harmless platitudes, when compared with the daring attempt to translate poetically (as the author pretends) the description given by the English poet of our first parents in their celestial grove:—Milton, vol. i. book iv. page 279.

" Two, of far nobler shape, erect and tall,
God-like erect, with native honor clad,
In naked majesty seem'd lords of all,
And worthy seem'd; for in their looks divine,
The image of their glorious maker shone,
Truth, wisdom, sanctitude, severe and pure,
(Severe, but in true filial freedom plac'd,)
Whence true authority in men; though both
Not equal, as their sex not equal seem'd;
For contemplation he and valour form'd,
For softeness she and sweet attractive grace,
He for God only, she for God in him:"

' Au milieu des beautés qu'offroient ces lieux champêtres,
Parmi ses habitants *se promenoient* deux êtres,
Debout, levant au ciel leurs fronts nobles, *sertins,*
Et de ce lieu superbe augustes souverains;
Nus, ils etoient couverts d'un voile de decence;
Ils brilloient de fierté, d'honneur, et d'innocence;
Rois paisibles du monde, en leur regard altier,
En leurs sublimes traits, Dieu s'est peint tout entier;
Tout ce qu'on doit aimer, et tout ce qu'on revere,
Raison, vertu, sagesse, et piété severe,——
—— Dans leurs formes pourtant quelque inégalité
De leurs sexes divers distinguoit la beauté:

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* Milton does not give the epithet of *black* to the *fir.*

L'un

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L'un superbe *annonçoit, et la force et l'audace*
L'autre *d'attraits plus doux développoit la grace;*
Le premier pour Dieu seul vivoit en ce beau lieu
Le second y vivoit, et pour l'homme et pour Dieu.'

Here we finish our extracts;—and having endeavoured, with becoming temperance, to sprinkle cool patience over the heat and rage of our critical anger, we take our leave of Mons. GRANDMAISON:—but not without admonishing him, and most of the Gallic sons of Apollo, to respect and venerate the immortal shades of our English poets. Let them be considered as reposing under the sanction of consecrated laurels; one branch of which, it is even something like sacrilege to endeavour to appropriate by any but kindred hands.

Mr. Mo-y.

ART. XII. *Lycée*, &c. *i. e.* The Lyceum, or a Course of Literature antient and modern; by J. F. LA HARPE. Vols. XIII. and XIV. 8vo. Paris. 1804. Imported by De Boffe. Price 14s. sewed.

IN analyzing the XIth and XIIth volumes of this interesting publication, we intimated our doubts of receiving any additions to it from the hand of its veteran author *. Since that period, we have learnt that M. LA HARPE is no longer an inhabitant of this busy trifling world: yet, contrary to our expectations, we are furnished with the volumes now before us; and an anonymous prefixed advertisement informs us that a XVth volume will appear, treating on *the Philosophy of the 18th century*, and prefaced by an historical account of the life and labours of the deceased Professor.

Vol. XIII. Chap. VIII. Sect. 1. *The Paradoxes of Fontenelle, Lamotte, and Trublet*, &c. *in Literature and Poetry, considered as the first Errors of the philosophical Spirit of the 18th Century.*—The lecturer here furnishes an ingenious refutation of a miserable paradox first broached under the regency, which survived that epoch; and which, incredible as it may appear, received the support of intellects of the first order. It was contended that prose was capable of expressing all that poetry could convey; that the latter was a frivolous art, and that versification was ingenious folly. A disciple of this school observed, that the greatest praise which could be given to verse was to say that it was as good as prose: but, continued he, "I have never known any that could claim this commendation." Will it be believed that names so illustrious as those of *Fontenelle, Montesquieu*, and *Buffon*, assisted to give vogue to this conceit? The sophisms of *Fontenelle*, which display much art and ingenuity,

* See M. R. N. S. Vol. xxxvii. p. 483.

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are very successfully and ably exposed by the present author: who, with great probability, traces the origin of this tenet to envy; and who supposes that its abettors, finding themselves unable to approach the eminence of the great masters of the preceding reign, laboured to depreciate the excellence which they were incapable of imitating. That men of talents and of taste should ever have advanced such a proposition, is truly astonishing: though from persons solely addicted to the abstract sciences we might have listened to it without suprize. Our great Newton, who was an admirer of Blackmore's poetry, referring to the attention which Pope's translation of Homer had excited, is said to have expressed his amazement that the world should interest itself so much about a ballad.

M. La Harpe justly observes that poetry neither owes its origin, nor its subsequent advances towards perfection, to philosophy, because the best models existed before any didactic treatise on the subject had appeared. Genius had produced, long before philosophy speculated. Doubtless we admire its speculations as they proceed from Aristotle, but these have had only the effect of generalizing the theory of the art, without calling forth the talent of the artist; they have merely added the authority of reason to that of examples. This is no mean service: but only genius and taste united can, in matters of this sort, enlighten the understanding, and warm the imagination. Homer and Sophocles might thus have addressed Aristotle himself;—"You have reasoned well, because we have invented well;—you have given a very good account of what you learned from us. We composed our epic and our tragedy, without your Art of Poetry: but without our epic and tragedy, you would never have been able to pen your didactic treatise; and men of talents, who shall succeed us, will learn a hundred times more in our works than in yours."

The author contends that what is called an universal genius has existed only in the sciences, and never in the arts, which depend on the imagination. Aristotle and Pliny, he admits, directed their studies to every science which, in their time, engaged the attention of well-informed men: but he remarks that the one disseminated as much error as truth; while the other, embracing the wider range, was more shining than solid, and did little more than furnish a rhetorical nomenclature for things, which it has since been found necessary to examine in a way far different from that which he had adopted. Besides, great orators have been only orators, and great poets have been only poets.

M. La Harpe makes a criticism on a very celebrated person, which we regard as extremely just:

'*Voltaire,*'

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'*Voltaire*,' he says, 'who has more than any one aimed at universality, and who certainly was endowed with singular versatility of mind, was far from being an universal genius, since he fell very short of being an universal poet. He took the lead, it is true, in two very opposite kinds of poetry, the tragic and the lighter poetry; and this rare union is the more glorious as it remains to this day unique. In the lyric and the comic, he absolutely failed; and in the epic, the philosophic, and heroi-comic, he can scarcely be placed in the second class: he cannot stand the comparison with Tasso, nor with Pope; nor with Ariosto, nor with the author of the *Lutrin*. What would be his situation if placed by the side of Homer or Virgil?—In prose he stands much lower than he does in poetry.'

It is observed of Horace that he united a Pindar and an Anacreon, each more perfect than the original, in his own person. He had the sublimity of the former, with more of variety, and with a more steady course; he had all the grace of Anacreon, with more of sensibility and talent.

Towards the close of this section, and in Sect. II. which specifically treats of the *Odes of Lamotte*, the lecturer enters into a detailed discussion of the merits of this writer, who was slightly noticed in the preceding volume. In this examination, *Lamotte*, a poet of some merit, and a leader of the anti-poetic sect, is somewhat severely treated. If the sketch here drawn does not exactly describe him, it unquestionably applies to numerous writers in every country:

'When I first entered life, (says M. La Harpe) about forty years ago, *Lamotte* had already descended into the class of authors who are never read but by men of letters, who must read every thing. Some passages in his operas, a few strophes of his odes, and occasionally one of his fables, were quoted; and his tragedy of *Inès*, though held in no great value, retained its place on the stage. The harshness of his versification was admitted on all hands, and his paradoxes were never mentioned but in order to be ridiculed. He doubtless possessed talents, but they did not exceed mediocrity; he ranks with the multitude of authors of the second order.'

Poor *Lamotte* is not yet to be released; for his *prose* is to be submitted to the ordeal. It is conceded that his style was pleasing, refined, and adapted to discussion; in which, however, it was rarely employed: but can agreeable diction, it is asked, make amends for the absence of truth and good sense?

'His language is every where deficient in warmth and colouring; always agreeable, it is never eloquent, though it admitted of and required eloquence, for he treats only of the arts which regard the imagination; and that is precisely the case in which a man who was sensible of their influence would be eloquent. But *Lamotte* discusses them as a sophist, and never feels them as an artist; he displays solely the faculty of drawing just conclusions in order to misapply them, and of establishing, with admirable

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mirable facility, matters that were not in dispute. With a politeness under which the most delicate irony was couched, and with all the coolness imaginable, he knew how to turn to his account the advantages which were given him by an adversary so little skilful as poor Madame *Dacier*, God rest her soul; but to whom the lovers of antiquity and of Homer will never pardon her unfortunate erudition. Alas! why did this gorged pedantic female meddle with the subject; she who was wholly destitute of talents and taste, and as much a stranger to the charms of poetry as to those of her sex; who unfortunately for herself, for Homer, and for the literary world, was mistress of Greek; and who did the revered antient a hundred times more injury by defending him, than the *Perraults* and *Lamottes* did by attacking him.

'*Lamotte* was in his life-time a successful and esteemed author. Almost all his pieces obtained a degree of credit which far exceeded their value; and which they owed chiefly to the happy temperament and agreeable qualities of their author. He was generally beloved, and deservedly: but personal qualities, though more estimable than talents and reputation, cannot affect a man's works, which are the sole object to which posterity directs its attention. His character procured him many friends, and the charms of his conversation made his society be courted. His principles of conduct and his morals were excellent, for they were derived from religion. Though blind during the last twenty years of his life, his temper was ever cheerful and equal; and the satires, good and bad, which were pointed at him, were never able to ruffle it. He never retaliated. He was excessive in his complaisance towards cotemporary authors; in whom he always found something to praise, but rarely any thing to blame.'

It is the picture, and not the original, which has induced us to dwell so long on this subject; for there are in every country many originals whom it would not unfaithfully pourtray. The lecturer adds some remarks on the conduct of his hero, which we deem to be equally spirited and just.—Speaking of *Lamotte*'s courteous behaviour towards his literary fellow-labourers, he says:

'Let it not be supposed that they set little value on the praises which he bestowed. It was not so; and if they placed no great confidence in him, they were constantly pleased with him. We always deem those to be good judges who are able to discover our merit; and we are generally satisfied with those who make us pleased with ourselves. Praise among authors is an article of commerce; it is dealt-in at much risk, and principally on credit: we have seen great speculators, after large advances, ruined even in their life-time; and the most successful never leave any inheritance.'

The effects of policy, address, and management in literature would furnish a good subject for an essay; which would be most complete, and have most interest, if the scene were laid in France; we mean the former France: for there literature was in every respect more a profession, and the spirit of intrigue

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trigue was more active and adroit. Very fair materials, however, may be collected in our own country. We are not without instances among us of authors enjoying much consideration while living, who, as soon as they quitted the stage of life, were never more mentioned. These ephemeral literati made up in art what they wanted in talents; if indifferent artists, they were shrewd men of the world; if they had not stores of genius from which they could draw, they knew how to recommend their commodity; they seized the right moment for taking it to market; and they had respect to the bias and consulted the prejudices of the public. How often have these insects of the day basked in the sunshine of prosperity, admired and courted, while sons of immortality have lain concealed in obscure corners, chilled and starved?

Sec. III. *Of the Odes and sacred Poems of Lefranc de Pompignan.* This writer was also slightly mentioned in the preceding volume, and is now introduced with much more *éclat*. The lecturer has discovered three little poems, in turning over works which their general mediocrity had withdrawn from the course of reading; the one by *Lefranc*, the other by the younger *Racine*, and the third by the amiable and respectable *Thomas*. They strongly illustrate the happy observation before quoted, that the great poets abound far more in instruction than the most masterly critics. We shall give a few specimens for the gratification of those of our readers who are acquainted with French literature.

The subject of *Lefranc*'s poem is the death of the elder *Rousseau*, (not *Jean Jaques*) one of the first lyric poets of France.—Alluding to the death of Orpheus, the poem thus opens:

Quand le premier chantre du monde
Expira sur les bords glacés
Ou l'Hèbre effrayé, dans son onde
Reçut ses membres dispersés:
Le Thrace, errant sur les montagnes,
Remplit les bois et les campagnes
Du cri perçant de ses douleurs;
Les champs de l'air en retentirent,
Et dans les antres qui gémirent
Le lion répandit des pleurs.

Le Nil a vu sur ses rivages
Les noirs habitans des déserts
Insulter par leurs cris sauvages,
L'astre éclatant de l'Univers.
Cris impuissans! Fureurs bizarres!
Tandis que ces monstres barbares

Poussaient d'insolentes clameurs,
Le Dieu, poursuivant sa carrière,
Versait des torrens de lumière
Sur ses obscurs blasphémateurs.

La France a perdu son Orphée.
Muses, dans ces momens de deuil,
Elevez le pompeux trophée
Que vous demande son cercueil.
Laissez par de nouveaux prodiges,
D'éclatans et dignes vestiges
D'un jour marqué par vos regrets :
Ainsi le tombeau de Virgile
Est couvert du laurier fertile
Qui par vos soins ne meurt jamais.

Du sein des ombres eternelles,
S'elevant aux trônes des dieux,
L'Envie offusque de ses ailes
Tout éclat qui blesse ses yeux.
Quel ministre, quel capitaine,
Quel monarque vaincra sa haine
Et les injustices du sort ?
Le tems à peine les consomme,
Et quoi que fasse le grand-homme,
Il n'est grand-homme qu'a sa mort.

Favoris, élèves dociles
De ce ministre d'Apollon,
Vous à qui ses conseils utiles
Ont ouvert le sacré vallon,
Accourez, troupe désolée ;
Déposez sur son mausolée
Votre Muse qu'il inspirait :
La mort a frappé votre maître
Et d'un souffle a fait disparaître
Le flambeau qui vous éclairait.

Et vous, dont sa fière harmonie
Egala les superbes sons,
Qui reviviez dans ce génie
Formé par vos seules leçons ;
Mânes d'Alcée et de Pindare,
Que votre suffrage répare
La rigueur de son sort fatal ;
Dans la nuit du séjour funèbre,
Consolez son ombre célèbre
Et couronnez votre rival.'

The lecturer says that he lived in literary society without having heard of this poem, till he accidentally met with it, as he was perusing the works of *Lefranc*. With respect to the second

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second stanza, which is 'so elevated and harmonious,' he relates the following anecdote:

'During my first visit to *Ferney*, I took an opportunity one day at dinner, as if by accident, to recite this stanza to *Voltaire*, in the presence of about twenty persons. I distrusted the man, but I wished to have the opinion of the poet. He burst into cries of admiration, which was always his mode; he never could listen to beautiful verses with calmness. "*Ah mon Dieu! que cela est beau! et qu'est-ce qui a fait cela?*" I made him guess for some time; and at length I named *Lefranc*. It was a thunder-clap; his arms dropped down: all were silent, and had their eyes fixed on him: At last, "*Réditez-moi la strophe.*" I repeated it; and one may easily guess with what severe attention it was heard. He then rejoined—"*Il n'y a rien à dire. La strophe est belle.*"

Sect. IV. *Of some other odes, by different authors, the younger Racine, Malfilaire, Thomas, &c.*—The subject of the ode of the younger *Racine* is Harmony. Ascribing to the influence of Harmony the first formation of society, and the miracles of Orpheus, the poet thus proceeds:

'*Mais qui peut compter tes merveilles,*
Enchanteresse de nos sens?
Si je languis, tu me réveilles;
Je vis au gré de tes accens.
Tyrtée enflamme mon courage;
Il chante, je vole au carnage,
Bellone règne dans mon cœur.
Anacréon monte sa lyre;
Mes armes tombent, je soupire,
Et le Plaisir est mon vainqueur.

'*Par quel art le chantre d'Achille*
Me rend il tant de bruits divers?
Il fait partir la flèche agile,
Et par ses sons sifflent les airs.
Des vents me peint-il le rivage?
Du vaisseau que brise leur rage
Eclate le gémissement;
Et de l'onde qui se courrouce
Contre un rocher qui la repousse
Retentit le mugissement.

'*S'il me presente ce coupable*
Qui, dans l'empire ténébreux,
Roule une pierre épouvantable
Jusqu'au sommet d'un mont affreux;
Ses genoux tremblans qui flechissent,
Des bras nerveux qui se roidissent,
Me font pour lui pâlir d'effroi;
Le malheureux enfin succombe,
Et de la roche qui retombe,
Le bruit résonne jusqu'a moi.

'*Par*

'*Par la cadence de Virgile*
Un coursier devance l'éclair.
Souvent prêt à suivre Camille,
Comme elle je me crois en l'air.
Du bœuf tardif que rien n'étonne,
Et qu'en vain son maître aiguillonne,
Tantôt je presse la lenteur;
Et tantôt d'un géant énorme,
La masse lourde, horrible, informe,
M'accable sous sa pesanteur.

'*Qu'* avec plaisir je me délasse
Sous ces arbres délicieux
Que la main d'Horace entrelasse
Par des nœuds qui charment mes yeux!
Leurs branches se cherchent, s'unissent,
S'embrassent et m'ensevelissent
Dans l'ombre que font leurs amours;
Tandis que l'onde fugitive
D'un ruisseau que son lit captive,
Murmure de ses longs détours.'

He then sketches, with equal felicity, but in a lower tone, the excellencies of the moderns.—The remarks of M. La Harpe on this pleasing little piece are in his best manner.

The following stanzas, so finely sentimental, conclude an unequal ode by *Thomas*, on *Time*:

'*Si je devais un jour pour de viles richesses,*
Vendre ma liberté, descendre à des bassesses;
Si mon cœur par mes sens devait être amolli,
O Tems! je le dirais: Préviens *ma dernière heure;*
Hâte-toi, que je meure;
J'aime mieux n'être plus que de vivre avili.

'*Mais si de la vertu les généreuses flammes*
Peuvent de mes écrits passer dans quelques ames,
Si je puis d'un ami soulager les douleurs;
S'il est des malheureux dont l'obscure innocence
Languisse sans defense,
Et dont ma foible main puisse essuyer les pleurs:

'*O Tems! suspends ton vol, respecte ma jeunesse;*
Que ma mère, long tems témoin de ma tendresse,
Reçoive mes tributs de respect & d'amour;
Et vous, Gloire, Vertu, déesses immortelles,
Que vos brillantes ailes
Sur mes cheveux blanchis se reposent un jour.'

These ideas, so true and so natural, says M. La Harpe, came from the heart of the author. What he only once wrote, he practised all his life; for all his life he was the benefactor of his connections; and more than once he gave proofs

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proofs of a firm and independent mind, which was above regarding fortune and dreading power.

Sect. V. *Of Poetic Dissertations and Letters, and of their different species.*—In the lecturer's criticism on *Voltaire*'s poetic epistles, though he makes somewhat free with the object of the idolatry of his younger days, he manifests nice discrimination, and a fairness which is very unusual in the late publications of his countrymen. Alluding to *Voltaire*'s poem on natural law, he says:

'It has not the tone of Pope, though he evidently attempts to rival that writer, and has borrowed many passages from him. Their manner is very different; that of Pope is more elevated, chaste, and rapid; there is scarcely a verse which does not include two thoughts: thanks to the more free structure of English poetry. *Voltaire* moves by far less swiftly: but, in his unshackled and easy march, he scatters on all sides the flowers of fancy, and it is thus that he makes amends for his deficiency in just and forcible reasoning. The form of his style is ever varying; he joins the familiar and the serious with the utmost facility, but not always by means of shades sufficiently marked, nor with due regard to decency. His transitions are at times too abrupt, and his versification is more negligent than is allowable in this species of style.'

M. La Harpe strictly reproves his old master for his impieties: but he unluckily betrays, in some of his animadversions, a degree of ignorance which his church might well declare to be pious. There are not wanting errors in abundance in the pages of that most celebrated writer: but his reclaimed pupil labours under the misfortune of imputing to him, as mistakes, positions in which he is well founded. He quotes the following passage:

'*Pour lui tout est scandale, & tout impiété.*
Assurer que ce globe en sa course emporté,
S' élève a l'équateur en tournant sur lui-même,
C'est un raffinement d'erreur & de blasphême.
Malbranche est Spinosiste, & Locke en ses écrits,
Du poison d'Epicure infecte les esprits.
Pope est un scélérat, de qui la plume impie
Ose vanter de Dieu la clémence infinie,
Qui prétend follement, ô le mauvais chrétien!
Que Dieu nous aime tous, & qu' ici tout est bien.'

He then observes:

'So many words, so many falsehoods: it is a gross artifice, though a common one, to suppose absurd accusations, which were never preferred, in order to induce a belief that there never were any which truth warranted.'

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With respect to the artifice, we have nothing to say: but we cannot help admiring the ignorance which is equal to the assurance betrayed in this passage. Whether the system of *Malbranche* was charged with Spinosism, we cannot assert: but this we know, that charges of a similar nature were urged here against the kindred theory of our most ingenious and subtle Berkley.—Many of the confident dicta of the literary veteran, however, are here pointedly refuted, and many of his inconsistencies ably exposed.

Though the reader will complain that this author is desultory, and by much too minute, still he will find that his criticisms are in general well considered, frequently convincing and satisfactory, and the dictates of a mind distinguished by culture, taste, and judgment. In the midst, however, of decrees to which not much can be objected, there occurs one instance of flagrant injustice, sufficient almost of itself to condemn the whole; we refer to the sentence which the author passes on *Paradise Lost*, and which runs thus: 'No man of taste, notwithstanding some sublime passages, and some beautiful conceptions, will ever compare a shapeless production, which swarms with faults the most offensive, to Virgil and Tasso; a poem which has neither course nor plan, and which joins to so many other faults, that of terminating at the end of the fifth canto; so that it is impossible to wade through what follows without languor.' (Vol. xiv. p. 358.)—A person who opened the voluminous *Cours de Litterature*, and first stopped at this passage, could not be very severely condemned if he never opened it again. In charity to the writer, indeed, we may suppose the former French versions of our divine bard to have been most grossly defective; and perhaps he would have recalled his anathema, had he lived to see the translation of the Abbé *Delille*, which we hear has recently made its appearance.—It does not fall within our province to treat as it deserves so gross an insult on our literature. In another part of his work, the author deliberately renews his outrages: but it would be an ill use of our limited space, to occupy any of it with a vindication of our immortal poet against censures so extravagant.

In his observations on the fables of *Florian*, the lecturer renders due justice to that admirable author; and a fine vein of criticism runs through his pages. Of these fables he says that, out of a hundred of which they consist, 'three-fourths are very beautiful, and some of them are, in my judgment, little *chefs d'œuvre*.' We feel happy in an opportunity of recommending to the notice of our youthful readers a work so deserving of their attention.

Vol.

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Vol. XIV. opens with a chapter on *Eloquence*, divided into sections, 1. *On the Eloquence of the Bar*; 2. *On that of the Pulpit*; 3. *On that of Panegyrics or Eulogies*.—On the first head, M. LA HARPE reasons in favour of a doctrine which has lately been very current, and which represents eloquent speaking and eloquent writing as faculties completely distinct, if not opposite. He illustrates (as he thinks) this notion by a striking modern example. We do not dispute the fact, but we hold the inference to be fallacious.

'The faculty of speaking, as distinct from that of writing, has uniformly distinguished the luminaries of the bar. We ever find their writings inferior to their professional reputation. The habit of availing themselves in their arguments, which they never write, of external means,—the effects of voice, the vehemence and noblenes of action, readiness in reply, looks, gestures,—all these things are nothing on paper, but they powerfully operate on an audience. Besides, there are men who are all animation before a listening crowd, but are wholly lethargic when they take up the pen. Had we not an instance of this in the most celebrated advocate of our days? Who is there that has not witnessed the powers of *Gerbier* in the Hall of Justice, so often the theatre of his triumph? But his genius could only be called forth in the forensic combat. His senses required to be roused before he could put in motion those of others. Action and shew, the apparatus of tribunals, the presence of his adversaries and of his clients, and the agitation of a large assembly, were necessary in order to awaken his powers. It was in this arena that he astonished us with his stores, that he displayed by turns animation and dignity, fancy and pathos, reasoning and eloquence. He trusted to the moment, and was never deceived; and for whole hours he rivetted attention, and carried along with him the judges and the assembly. Nature had made him an orator; his organs, his physiognomy, and his sensibility fitted him to support that character: but when alone, sitting down to composition, all his powers abandoned him, and he became an ordinary man. He wrote little, and though what he produced was in good taste, it was destitute of force: but he was more happy, perhaps, in the numerous and brilliant successes of which he had the enjoyment, than if, instead of those oratorical powers which died with him, he had possessed that grand talent of writing which dies not, indeed, but which is rarely estimated according to its value, till it can no longer be enjoyed.'

Many of our readers will probably think that this picture would have been but little different, had it been the delineation of a well-known personage on our side of the water.

We admit, as it is here intimated, and as it has often been contended, that the faculties of writing and speaking eloquently are distinct: but we deny, on the authority of antiquity, that they are so distinct as it has recently been the fashion to maintain. We are aware that the transcendent orators of our own

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country, with the exception of one only, are so many instances adapted to corroborate the notion which we combat: but we cannot grant that this difference has any foundation in nature; since the harangues of antient speakers, who threw the assemblies of the people into raptures, still affect us in a similar way, and are the models on which we form ourselves. The two sorts of eloquence are kindred attainments, and mutually aid each other. If eloquent speakers are not eminent in composition, they may thank their own remissness for it; we are to ascribe it to idleness and to an indifference to posthumous fame; and we may be sure that, for this very reason, they are the less accomplished and less finished speakers.

We cannot resist the temptation of inserting the author's eulogium on a character which has always attracted high and general esteem:

'Posterity will ever honor, in the Chancellor D'*Aguesseau*, a man who himself did honor to France, to the magistracy, and to letters, by his virtues, by his talents, by his knowlege, by the services which he rendered to the state, and by the light which he introduced into jurisprudence. His youth under Louis XIV. was illustrious; his disgrace under the regency was not less honorable to him; and his old age was held in just veneration. His writings will ever prove a rich source of instruction to those who study our laws. His eloquence was that of a magistrate who was the minister of justice, who recommended good principles, who pointed out abuses, who prescribed and set an example of moderation. His diction was pure, and his taste was not less sound than his judgment: he was a writer who had imbibed the excellencies of both the antient and the modern classics.'

In the midst of the illumination and polish which have rendered so imposing the reign of Louis XIV., the courts of law still retained their former barbarism. About the time of Louis XV.'s accession, a race of superior advocates commenced; who, quitting the antient track, sought a new course, and disengaged the language of the courts from the pedantry which had before distinguished it. It is this title to fame which has handed down to us the names of the *Reverseaux*, the *Degennes*, and above all, those of a *Lenormand* and a *Cochin*. In their time, they were the luminaries and ornaments of the French bar; and the reading of their memorials forms at this day the study of their successors. The diction is pure, and they are admirable specimens of discussion. *Cochin* has the merit of going directly to the point, and of exhibiting his proofs with eminent conciseness; he manages them admirably; and most forcible is the conviction which he makes them produce. Grant to him and to *Lenormand* moving pictures, and a glow of style, and they would have been orators: but now they are only able advocates.

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We must, however, hasten our steps; and we can only farther notice some detached passages of the *Fragments* which occupy the greater part of this volume, and which treat of various works in the classes of history, novels, miscellaneous and foreign literature, &c.

It has been unpropitious to the fame of *Lesage*, and to the better information of our youth, that his celebrated work has been a school-book in this country; since its merit has on that account been far less estimated, and the profit derived from it incomparably diminished. Few productions so well deserve to be carefully studied by young persons at the period of entering on the great theatre of the world. Impressed with this opinion, we lay before our readers the admirable account of that work which is given by M. LA HARPE:

'*Gil Blas* is a *chef-d'œuvre*; it is one of the small number of novels which is ever re-perused with pleasure; it is a moral picture, exhibiting real human life; and all orders of persons appear there, either to receive or to furnish lessons. Instruction is never conveyed without charms; and *utile dulci* ought to be the motto of this excellent book, which agreeable pleasantry every where pervades. Many of its traits have passed into proverbs; as for example the homilies of the archbishop of Grenada. The interrogation of the servants of Samuel Simon are worthy of *Moliere*; what a bitter satire on the inquisition! And what pictures of the audience of a first secretary, of the impertinence of comedians, of the vanity of an upstart, of the folly of a poet, of the effeminacy of a rich ecclesiastic, of the interior of a great house, of the character of the nobles, and of the manners of their domestics! *Gil Blas* is the school of the world. It has been objected to the author, that he sketches none but cheats: but why should this be an objection, if they exist in nature? It has also been urged against him, that he enters too much into detail: but is he not ever correct and instructive? The characters of *Gil Blas* are recognized; we have lived with them, we meet with them every moment. In the painting which he has drawn, not a trait is without design, or without an object.'

With regard to Telemachus, the lecturer observes that *Fenelon* has blended in that work all that is most beautiful in Homer, Virgil, and Sophocles; and he has made it level with the capacity of all his readers, by charms of style peculiar to him, and by the magic of the antique,—to call up which his powers alone were equal. In reading him, we fancy that we are reading an antient.

We shall conclude this article with two anecdotes; which, if not very pertinent to the subject of these lectures, are intitled to insertion as respecting a fine genius, and one of the best-hearted among men,—the very amiable prelate of whom we have just been speaking:

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'The worthy archbishop did not deem it beneath him assiduously to confess his flock, and he admitted all without distinction. He celebrated mass every Saturday. One day, as he was going to ascend the altar, he perceived an old woman who seemed desirous of speaking to him: he approached her in a most gracious manner, and encouraged her to open her mind to him. *My lord*, said she, weeping, and presenting him with a piece of twelve sous, *I dare not; but I have great confidence in your prayers. I feel a desire to intreat you to say mass for me.* "*Give it,*" replied *Fenelon*, receiving her offering, "*your alms will be acceptable to God.*"—"*Gentlemen,*" said he to the priests who accompanied him to serve at the altar, "*learn to honour your ministry.*" After mass, he ordered a large sum to be given to the poor woman, and promised to say mass for her again the next day.'—

'While the army of the allies was in possession of a part of Flanders, and whole villages sought safety within the walls of Cambray, the good archbishop himself threw open the doors of his palace, to receive those unfortunate persons who were driven from their possessions. A young peasant, who seemed to be profoundly afflicted, and who ate nothing, engaged his notice. In order to make him forget his misfortunes, *Fenelon* sat by him, and told him that troops were expected the next day, who would drive away the enemy, and that he would be enabled to return to his village. "*I shall not find my cow there,*" said the peasant: "*The poor animal gave milk enough to nourish my father, my wife, and my children.*" *Fenelon* promised to give him another cow, if the soldiers had taken his own away: but all his attempts to console his humble guest were fruitless. He then made him accurately describe the situation of his cottage, which was at the distance of a league from the city; and this benevolent prelate, attended only by one servant, taking his pass with him, set out at ten o'clock at night on foot, went straight to the village, brought the cow to Cambray at midnight, and went himself to inform the poor labourer of what had been done. When was the direction of our Saviour,—"He that would be greatest among you, let him be the servant of all,"—so finely exemplified? Ye high-crested priests, if ye would be really great, imitate the primitive pastor of Cambray.'

A careful perusal of the *Cours de Littérature* will enable a person to bear a part in conversations on topics of French literature; and the diligent student, who will moreover attentively read the principal works discussed in its pages, will attain as intimate an acquaintance with this subject as is compatible with the other necessary pursuits of an English scholar;—an acquaintance which cannot fail to have a favourable effect on his taste and his turn of mind.

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ART. XI. M. MEUSEL's *Guide to the History of Literature.*

[*Article continued from Appendix to M. R. Vol.* XXXVI. p. 536.]

CIRCUMSTANCES have concurred to delay the conclusion of our report of this useful performance, much longer than we could have wished: but we prefer the resumption of it, after this long interval, to the *hiatus* which would be occasioned by our suffering it to remain for ever incomplete. We shall proceed, therefore, in the same mode of analysis: but we perceive that we shall not be able, as we formerly hoped, to terminate our abstract in one article, without intrenching too far on the remaining pages of this Appendix. For a future supplement, therefore, or perhaps for one of our ensuing current numbers, the final division must be reserved.

The SIXTH SECTION, or PERIOD. *From the Restoration of the Sciences to the present Time;* i. e. *from* 1500 *to* 1800.

General State of Letters.—We are now to consider a portion of history the most interesting in the annals of mankind. The accounts of the former ages seem to regard a totally different class of Beings: but the events which we are at present to contemplate refer immediately to ourselves, and to our actual state of knowlege.—The vast strides which science made in this period had been already prepared, so far as regarded their external causes, chiefly towards the end of the period preceding; and the conquest of Constantinople, the discovery of America, that of a passage by the Cape of Good Hope, and, more than all, the invention of the art of printing, had largely contributed to the diffusion of learning and philosophy. The increased importance of the middle class of mankind excited a spirit of inquiry, which tended to secure their freedom. Luther, Melanchthon, Calvin, were zealous in the liberation of mankind from the chains of spiritual bondage; and the keen satire of Erasmus, Hutten, and Nizolius, brought into deserved ridicule the false learning of the age.

During the confusion of foreign warfare and internal tumult, a plan for the extension of science was laid in England by Bacon, and the principal laws of nature were disclosed in Italy by Galileo. Newton, Bayle, Leibnitz, &c. united in establishing philosophy on the sure basis of experiment; and Frederick II., Buffon, Hutcheson, Helvetius, Rousseau, Voltaire, &c. ever preaching up reason, though even to them its primary principles were not yet clearly evident, were active in dispelling prejudice from the minds of men. The labours of Hume and of *Kant*, according to M. MEUSEL, have been most successful in

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tracing the limits of human intellect, and in pointing out the true basis of reasoning.

The principal Promoters of Learning were, in Italy, the Popes Leo X., Gregory XIII., Sextus V., Urban VIII. Benedict XIV., Clement XIV., and Pius VI.:—in Germany, Maximilian I., Ferdinand I., Maximilian II., Rudolphus II., Ferdinand III., Leopold I., Charles VI., Francis I., and Joseph II.:—in Portugal, John V., and Pombal, prime minister under king Joseph Emmanuel:—in Spain, Cardinal Ximenes, Philip V., Ferdinand VI., and Charles III.:—in France, Francis I., Cardinal Richelieu, Louis XIV., XV., and XVI.:—in England, Henry VIII., Elizabeth, James I., Charles II., William III., George II. and III.:—in Denmark, Frederick II., Christian IV., Frederick III., Christian V. and VI., and Frederick V.:—in Sweden, Gustavus I. and II., Christina, Frederick, Adolphus-Frederick, and Gustavus III.:—in Poland, Stephen Batheri, John Casimir, John Sobiesky, Augustus II. and III., and Stanislaus Augustus:—in Russia, Peter I., Elizabeth, and Catherine II.:—in Prussia, Frederick I. and II., Frederick-William III.:—and besides these, several German electors, princes, and others.

The Persons by whose Influence Learning was chiefly benefited were, Erasmus, Luther, Melanchthon, Calvin, Beza, Francis Bacon, Galileo, Grotius, Descartes, Conring, Puffendorf, Boyle, Bayle, Locke, Leibnitz, Newton, Thomasius, Wolf, Mosheim, Voltaire, Rousseau, Lessing, Franklin, and *Kant*.

Schools and Seminaries of Learning.—The progress of the sciences had a favourable influence on schools. Luther and Melanchthon particularly distinguished themselves by their opposition to the systems of education then existing in the German universities; and their example was followed by Joh. Amos Comnenius, Basedow, Rousseau, &c. Academies for the young nobility, the schools of the Jesuits, the electoral schools of Saxony, those of the monasteries at Wirtemberg, &c. successively enjoyed great celebrity. We must not omit to mention, towards the close of the eighteenth century, the schools for the deaf and dumb established at Paris, Vienna, &c. nor the schools of industry now so generally prevalent.—During this period, were established the following *Universities*:—in Italy, those of Messina, Milan, Parma, Mantua, Urbino:—in Portugal, Evora:—in Spain, Alcala de Henares (Complutum), Granada, Compostella, Baeza, Ossuna, Osma, Orikuela, Barcelona, Cervera; and in Spanish America, Mexico, Lima, and Caracas:—in France, Rheims, Douay, Besançon, Pont-a-Mousson, Sedan, Molsheim, Strasburg, and Pau:—in Germany, Frankfurt on the Oder, Wittenburg, Marburg, Jena, Dillingen, Altdorf, Helmstädt, Grätz, Gresen, Rintela, Salzburg,

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burg, Bamberg, Duisburg, Innsbrück, Halle, Fulda, Göttingen, Erlangen, Eützow, Bonn, and Stuttgard:—in Switzerland, Geneva, and Lausanne, which, though properly speaking they are not universities, were however so called:—in the Netherlands, Leyden, Franeker, Gröningen, Utrecht, and Harderwyk:—in Great Britain and Ireland, Edinburgh, New Aberdeen, and Dublin:—in Hungary, Tyrnau:—in Silesia, Breslau:—in Poland and Lithuania, Wilna, Zamoscia, and Olyka:—in Prussia, Königsberg:—in Sweden, Abo:—in Russia, Dorpat, Kiow, and Moscow.—There were also founded in this period a vast number of academical gymnasia, colleges, &c. too numerous to mention: for these M. Meusel refers us to Lawätzen's *Handbuch*, Goetzii *Geographia Academica*, &c. The Jews established schools at Sapheta in Palestine, at Constantinople, and Saloniki; as well as in several parts of Germany, in Poland, in the Netherlands, and in England. The Turks too have instituted eleven academies at Constantinople, each consisting of fewer or more colleges, out of which are supplied the ministers of the church and state; more than 1600 youths are here instructed, at the expence of the grand Signior. The number of colleges, or schools of science, at Constantinople altogether exceeds 518; besides about 1255 inferior seminaries, in which reading, writing, and a sort of catechism, are taught.

The number of *Literary Societies* formed during this interval is astonishing: but the principal of them are so well known that it will not be necessary to particularize.

Libraries.—In proportion as collections of books had been hitherto rare, so much the more interesting is M. Meusel's list of public libraries established in this period in almost every part of Europe: suffice it, however, for us to observe, in general, that not only every university is now possessed of one or more of them, but that almost every town of importance seems to partake of this invaluable benefit.

State of Philology.—During the former half of this period, philology constituted the great pursuit of the learned, as well as their principal source of distinction. It engrossed almost all the ability of Europe;—'and yet, (says M. Meusel,) the Germans had the reputation of combining with it the most true taste and philosophy.' In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, the discovery of an universal philosophical language, with corresponding characters, (pasiphrasia and pasigraphia,) exercised the talents of Wilkins, Leibnitz, Wolf, Solbrig, and others. The Jews in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries paid much attention to their Hebrew literature,—though chiefly, perhaps, to that which was Rabbinical. The first printed Hebrew Bible was published by Dan. Bomberg of Antwerp, at

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Venice, 1518;—and four subsequent editions of the same appeared within the next twenty-four years. Bomberg also, in 1520, printed the Talmud, which called forth the severest censures from the Popes Julius III. and Paul IV. In the two following centuries, many learned Jews commented on their sacred books, and translated them into the pure German; as also into that dialect of it which was usually spoken by Jews. The most celebrated of these commentators were Gozel, Veibsch, (father and son), Mendelssohn, Euchel, Friedländer, and Wolfssohn. The Christians also, particularly the Protestants, have cultivated Hebrew literature, since the sixteenth century, with much greater diligence than formerly. At first, however, they all failed, owing to their copying too servilely the Jewish system of philology;—and it was not till the end of the seventeenth and beginning of the eighteenth century, that they adopted the more rational plan of employing the other oriental languages to illustrate the Hebrew. They did not stop here: so naturally did the study of one tongue seem to lead to that of another, that grammars and lexicons of every dialect, in any way connected with the Scriptures, were soon published. This might indeed be called the age of language-learning; and the author has given us a kind of *Catalogue raisonné*, consisting of sixty pages, and containing the names of learned men of all countries, who have been eminent within the last three centuries for facilitating the acquisition, not only of the classical languages, but of every other language that is known to exist. For information so copious, and so detailed, we must refer to the work itself; since it would be impossible to do justice to it by any abstract.

State of Historical Knowlege.—In this period, the study of history became very general; and history itself has derived great advantages from the increasing culture of classical literature, and from the more enlightened state of general philosophy. One of its chief improvements is due to Reinerus Reineccius, a German, (professor at Helmstädt towards the close of the sixteenth century,) who first introduced the practice of marginally citing his authorities: indeed, to the Germans in general, M. Meusel gives the preference for *industrious compilation*; though the French, he thinks, from the very beginning of this period, bore away the palm *for historical composition*. Various systems and compendia of *Universal History* were published at an early period, particularly by Carion, Melanchthon, Sleidan, Cluverius, Bossuet, and Cellarius; since whom Hübner, Zopf, Gatterer, Schroeckh, Swinton, Sale, Psalmanazar, Campbell, and Bower, together with Rollin and other French writers, have contributed to give to it a more methodical arrangement, as well

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as to disseminate a better taste in the study of it. In *Antient History*, properly so called, little more had been done than to collect materials, until nearly the middle of the eighteenth century; since which time the Germans have to boast their Gatterer, Beck, Remer, and Eichhorn: the Grecian history has been written of late years with great ability by Stanyan, Mably, Goldsmith, Denina, Gast, Gillies, and Mitford;—the Roman, by Hooke, Rollin, Crevier, Macquer, Goldsmith, Gibbon, Beaufort, Ferguson, and Stuart.—The *History of the Middle Ages* lay in deep obscurity even till late in the eighteenth century. One of the first and most clear-sighted authors, who undertook to inquire into the general state of the historical world during those ages, and thence to illustrate the events which occurred in them, was Robertson; (professor in the university of Edinburgh, 1793;) who, in the preface to his History of Charles V., has given a sketch of the progress of society in Europe, from the downfall of the Roman empire to the beginning of the sixteenth century. This department of history has thence assumed a very dissimilar form; men have learnt to inquire into the nature, the origin, and the secret causes of events, and to view many of them in a different light:—still, however, much remains to be done. Krause, Koch, and Remer, may on this head be perused with advantage.

The History of the Modern States of Europe has been recorded within the last century under every possible form of publication. Of compendious works, the best, according to M. MEUSEL, have been written by Germans;—though, at the same time, every nation has several of this description, which possess great merit. For particulars, our readers would do well to consult M. MEUSEL's list of authors.

The knowlege of *Ecclesiastical History* became so necessary at the reformation, that the learned of either party began to study it with greatly increased diligence, accuracy, and freedom; yet it must be confessed that, till very lately, since toleration has approximated the different religious parties, ecclesiastical history was seldom more than a furiously abusive enumeration of sects and heresies, stigmatizing as absurd and damnable whatever militated against that set of opinions which happened to be favoured by the writer.

The History of Learning has been much studied in Germany since the sixteenth century; Morkof, towards the end of the seventeenth, pointed out the right path, and has been followed by Conring, Pasch, and others. Gesner, so early as 1545, published a general literary lexicon: among others, Konigmencke, Jöcher, and Adelung, have pursued the same path, and far

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surpassed their predecessors:—but still without exhausting the subject.

Biography, which had been so much cultivated by the antients, and which in the middle ages was so sadly neglected, revived with the revival of literature. Among the writers in this line, some of the most prominent have been Camerarius, Gassendi, Le Clerc, Middleton, Mosheim, Gesner, Schroeckh, Fabroni, Schirach, Eberhard, Vogel, Meiners, Eichhorn, and Schlichtegroll. Some, too, have distinguished their names by the memoirs of themselves, as Cardan, Buchanan, de Thou, Huet, Rousseau, Hume, &c.

Chronology in this period derived much light from mathematics and history,—and in return it reflected much light on them. Great labour was employed in collating antient dates, and in reconciling the chronology of the classical writers with that of the Holy Scriptures. By means of compendious treatises and tables, this once obscure and intricate subject is now rendered familiar to every student.

Geography, antient and modern, mathematical and physical, had hitherto been little understood: but the voyages of Magellan, Drake, and Cook, round the world, and the great extension of commerce, have given to it an importance sufficient to interest alike the learned and the adventurous, and to call forth their ablest exertions. The authors most distinguished for their works in antient geography are, Cluverius, Heidmann, Janson, Cellarius, Schwartz, Mannert, Bochart, and Michaëlis. In *Mathematical Geography*, Ptolemæus had been hitherto considered as having reached the *ne plus ultra* of accuracy: but the two Bienewitz, Münster, Gemma, Mercator, and others, of the sixteenth century, have in this respect considerably surpassed him. In the eighteenth century, by the measurement of a degree at the polar circle, and on the equator, the French were enabled to ascertain the real form of the earth; and similar measurements have since been made by the English and Germans. The principal mathematical geographers of this period have been Picard, Sturm, Cassini, Kraft, Maupertuis, Clairaut, Le Monnier, Bouguer, Condamine, Boscowich, Frisi, Mason, De la Lande, De la Place, Klugël, Bode, Klostermann, and Zach.—Mercator's system of projection has been the grand foundation for the improvement of our *modern maps and charts*. He was followed, in the seventeenth century, by Hond, Münster, Sanson, and others. The amplest strides, however, towards perfection in this article, have been made in the eighteenth century by De l'Isle, d'Anville, Gosselin, and others of the French;—by Jefferys, Faden,

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and others, of the English; by Schmidt, Güsseman, &c. of the Germans; and by various others. In the department of *Physical Geography*, we are most indebted to the labours of Süssmilch, Lulof, Bergman, Wallerius, Haidinger, Forster, De Luc, Pallas, Dolomieu, Zimmermann, Meierstto, Otto, and other ingenious writers of voyages and travels.

Statistics.—This subject was never scientifically treated before the eighteenth century; for, though the antients have handed down to us some statistical accounts, (as Xenophon, for instance, of Athens and Lacedæmon,) yet these all want that regular and systematic form which is essential to a *science*. During the fifteenth century, when Venice became, as it were, the focus of all European politics, the Venetian government enjoined its ambassadors to draw up accounts of the internal state of those countries and courts to which they were delegated. These, as they came to hand, were carefully deposited in the archives; and, in the sixteenth century, they were partially published. Other powers adopted the practice;—and thus, by degrees, the strength and weakness of states, which till then had been little regarded, or had been cautiously involved in mystery, became topics of general discussion; and this give rise to the works of Sansorino (1567), of Botero (1592), and of others: hence also the Thesaurus Politicus of Gaspar Ens (1609). The Germans very early took the lead in this investigation; Conring, professor at Helmstädt (1660), first rendered it an university study; and he gave lectures on it, treating it as an appendage to political science. His example was followed in the eighteenth century by various universities of Germany. Ebenhard Otto (1726), separated the science of statistics altogether from that of politics; he called it *Notitiam præcipuarum Europæ Rerumpublicarum*; and by his lectures on it, he excited a great zeal for the study. M. Meusel, however, styles Achenwall of Gottingen (1749), the father of statistics; he was the first, indeed, who called the science by that name; and he exhibited it under a form incomparably more correct, complete, and regular, than any of his predecessors. The Germans, it should seem, assume the honours of this science almost exclusively; and "Salmon's Modern History, or the present State of all Nations" (1724) is, according to M. Meusel, the chief work of any consequence that has been published on this subject in England. The recent and elaborate English publications in this class could not, in course, have reached the author's knowlege. He mentions, with respect, Raynal's *Hist. Philos. et Politique des Etablissemens et du Commerce dans les deux Indes*,— but more particularly Büsching's magazine, which he

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considers as beginning comparatively a new epoch in statistics.

Much attention was also paid, during the latter part of this period, to the subjects of *Genealogy* and *Heraldry*, *of Medals*, and the *Diplomatic Art*; on the last of which articles, the works of chief importance have been the *Nouveau Traité de Diplomatique*, by Toustain and Tassin (1750), Gatterer's *Elementa Artis Diplom.* (1765), Schwartner's *Introductio*, Baring's *Clavis Diplomatica*, *&c.*

State of Mathematical Science. A more extensive study of antient authors had enabled the learned, about the beginning of the sixteenth century, to publish, with a translation and commentary, some of the best mathematical works of antiquity. Their next step was to venture into the path of original invention. The earliest attempts of this kind were made in Italy, and referred, as might naturally be expected, to the easier parts of pure mathematics. Tartaglia, teacher of mathematics, in Venice (1557), was the first who in any degree distinguished himself. Commandine and Maurolycus followed the same course (1575); and Lucas Valerius of Rome (1618), went beyond the boundaries of antient discovery: he particularly determined, what had been neglected by Archimedes, the centre of gravity in all solid conoïds, sphæroïds, and their segments; and he invented a new quadrature of the parabola. In France, little was done till the seventeenth century. 'No nation,' says M. Meusel, 'could at that time boast of more geometricians than Germany;' he especially mentions Byrge, as having contrived the proportional compass, which others have ascribed to Galileo, and as having paved the way for the subsequent invention of logarithms. This splendid discovery was reserved for Baron Napier (1614); it was at first, indeed, imperfect, but was afterward improved by Kepler, Briggs, and others.

Algebra is almost entirely the production of this period; for the little which had been exhibited by the Greeks since the 4th century, and after them by the Arabs, could scarcely be called a beginning. In the early part of the 15th century, Leonardo da Pisa seems to have been the first writer who made known to the world the discoveries of the Arabs: but it was Lucas Pacioli who, nearly at the end of the century, brought the science, for the first time, into any general esteem;—and even *he* did not advance beyond equations of the second order. Ferrei was the first person who found out a method of solving cubical equations: he confided the treasure to his scholar Fiore: but Tartaglia, getting possession of the secret, communicated it to Cardan; who then,—under the pretence that the rule

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rule itself only had been imparted to him, and that he had invented the demonstration of it,—published it as his own (1545), in his work intitled, *Ars Magna;* and hence it has unjustly been called, ever since, Cardan's Rule. Ferrari, a scholar of Cardan, invented a solution of biquadratic equations. Bombelli (1579,) united, improved, and considerably extended the discoveries of his predecessors. The subsequent history of this science is pretty generally known.

M. MEUSEL here gives a long and detailed account of the progress of geometry, perspective, mechanics, and the other branches of mixed mathematics, including gunnery and fortification;—to which we must refer the reader. The facts stated by him are, for the most part, familiar to those who have investigated these sciences; and to those who have not studied them, a more contracted account would appear unsatisfactory and uninteresting.

State of Philosophy.—Unfitted as were the Peripatetic doctrines to combine with the Christian religion,—since they completely excluded the Deity from the government of the world, and contained no proofs of the immortality of the soul,—yet they had so thoroughly infected the scholastic philosophy, that it was long ere the world could resolve to shake them off, and think for itself. They were studied, admired, and propagated in the early part of this period by persons the most celebrated for their learning, as well Protestants as Roman Catholics. The Ionian, the Stoic, the Pythagorean, and Eleatic Systems, had also each of them its votaries. In the 16th and 17th centuries, flourished the sect of Theosophi; who styled themselves *Philosophi per Ignem*, being much given to chemistry, and distinguished their philosophy by the title of Cabbala. At length, on the revival of the doctrines of Rosenkreutz by Andreæ (1586), they united themselves with the Rosicrucians, and assumed their name. In such a confusion of antient and modern systems of philosophy, it is not surprizing that scepticism also should find its place; and accordingly, the sect of *Modern Sceptics*, as they were called, has been dignified by the names of many illustrious members, from Sanchez, Charron, Huet, &c. of the 17th century, down to David Hume.

In the 16th century, some of the learned, tired of perpetual contest, endeavoured to combine two or more several systems, and thence obtained the name of Synkratists: but the system of Synkratism was soon overturned, partly owing to the endless contradictions which it was found to involve, and still more on account of the numerous phænomena of nature, unknown to the antients, but discovered in the progress of science, with which it was shewn to be incompatible. This gave rise to the wiser

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wiser practice of rejecting all that in the antient systems was, by later experience, proved to be false, and of connecting with the new discoveries all parts of them that could be retained: the set of doctrines thus formed constituted what was called the Eclectic Philosophy. Its first great founder was Francis Bacon; and it has been generally predominant ever since his time. For the opinions of Hobbes, Des Cartes, Thomasius, Leibnitz, Buddeus, Wolf, Hollman, Crusius, Bentley, and others of this period, M. MEUSEL may be consulted with advantage: for us, it is sufficient to consider them as various modifications of the systems already mentioned.

Logic was cleared, during this period, from the thorns and briars of the antient *Dialectics*, by Ramus, Acontius, Bacon, Des Cartes, Malebranche, and others:—but little farther progress was made, or could be made, until our immortal Locke had paved the way, by pointing out the true origin of our ideas.

The different branches of *Metaphysics*, *Ontology*, *Psychology*, &c. so engrossed the genius of the middle ages, as to leave little leisure for the study of practical philosophy. For the knowlege of the rights of nature, and the law of nations, M. MEUSEL refers to Winkler, Grotius, Selden, Hobbes, Bacon, Puffendorf, &c. Though the antients, particularly Plato, Aristotle, Dionysius, Longinus, Quintilian, and others, have furnished us with many elegant and useful remarks on the beautiful in nature and art, yet the moderns have the merit of having first established any general theory of it on sound philosophical principles. Baumgarten, of Berlin, first undertook the subject in this light, and gave to the new science the title of *Æsthetics*: he has been followed by Sulzer, Blankenburg, Abbt, Mendelssohn, Lessing, Lord Kaimes, *Kant*, and others.

[*To be continued.*] G. But.

ART. XII. *Histoire de la Revolution de France*, &c. *i. e.* A History of the Revolution in France, &c. By Two Friends of Liberty. Vols. XIX. and XX. 8vo. Paris. 1803. Imported by De Boffe.

THE inclination favourable to conservative principles, the disposition to lend an advantageous colouring to the measures of the existing government, the same general fidelity, and the same ease which characterize the former volumes * of this work, distinguish those which now lie before

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* *Vide* M. Rev. N. S. Vol. xxvii. p. 508.

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us. Several of the intermediate volumes have escaped us, but the chasm has been so abundantly filled up by similar labours, that we have not wanted ample opportunities of delivering our judgment on every part of the series of the dreadful events that formed the tremendous revolution which this bulky work commemorates.

The nineteenth volume opens with *Bonaparte*'s letter to the British King, and the subsequent correspondence to which it gave rise between the ministers of the respective countries. It is not a little curious that, in the account which the authors give of the debate in Parliament which followed this transaction, Mr. Fox is the only speaker whom they treat with severity. Some may think that an ample tribute of abuse from this quarter was all that was wanting to consummate the fame of our great senator; and that this testimonial, from the minions of a hostile despot, raises the credit of this enlightened friend of his country scarcely less than the invariable enmity of the adversaries of his sound constitutional principles at home, and far more than the panegyrics of his zealous admirers. When the views of our illustrious statesman led him to support the advances in favour of peace which were made by the Chief Consul, to seize this as an occasion for venting scurrility against him bespeaks a dislike to this eminent character, of no ordinary degree. The writers introduce the Honourable Gentleman as a man of the greatest talents, and of the most enlightened mind, but as one whose ambition it is to aim less at the esteem of the wise, than to secure a tumultuous popularity; whose public efforts are directed less to insure the triumph of truth, than to flatter his party; and who, in order to defend or combat opinions, does not ask himself whether they are just and useful, or erroneous and hurtful, but whence do they originate? Such, it seems, is the light in which our great constitutional orator is regarded by the courtiers of St. Cloud. It were strange indeed if so zealous and formidable a friend and protector of liberty did not incur their aversion, and draw down on himself their reprobation.—All the leading speakers, who took a part in the debate, are noticed: but the honour of being severely censured is conferred exclusively on Mr. Fox.

The authors assert that it was the intention of the English government, at this time, to transport into the insurgent provinces all the French emigrants, with the Comte *d'Artois* at their head, thirty thousand English, and the Russian legions then remaining in the British territories; and that it reckoned on the concurrence of forty thousand royalists. They impute the dispersion of the latter body, either to the insincerity or the tardiness of the British Ministry.

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To *Bonaparte*, these writers ascribe an intention, from his first accession to power, to re-establish the social hierarchy, to collect together the dissolved elements of voluntary obedience, to carry to the highest pitch disciplined and regulated heroism, to unite together all parties by reducing their differences to mere phrases and idle disputes, and to bind the people to the government, by inspiring and setting the example of a regard for religious opinions and dignities. Thus vanished, by degrees, the doctrine of levellers; who rendered the people intoxicated with envy, and who made them a perpetual jury over all the authorities. Customs, gradually revived, effaced one after another the fatal maxims of the preachers of abstraction; who taught the multitude not to regard the dead, but to violate their recesses; and who represented all distinctions of rank as absurd, and the priesthood as a body of hypocrites. The Consul seemed sensible that, if courage and force should oblige the enemy to demand peace, esteem and confidence alone could guarantee its duration; and endeavours were daily made to remove every pretext for enmities, and to introduce mutual esteem among all classes.

The institution of juries in France is here regarded as an imitation of a foreign usage too hastily introduced, and which does not harmonize with the French character, with the manners of the age, and with other laws;—as an establishment which it will be difficult ever to render useful, or to prevent from proving pernicious among a people who have more feeling than reflection, more enthusiasm than judgment, and whose opinions and affections pass, within the twinkling of an eye, from one extreme to another:—who decide before they examine, who begin by being convinced, in order to end by doubting, and whose sudden and decisive resolves are often at variance with their natural probity, which occasions them bitterly to lament irreparable evils when it is too late.

It has been rumoured, and very generally credited, that General *Dessaix*, to whose gallant interference in the memorable battle of Marengo, Europe owes its present aspect and *Bonaparte* his throne, was in principle a royalist. Universal testimony speaks highly in his favour, and the sketch here given of him exhibits him as a model for those who would distinguish themselves in the career of arms. He was one of that class of the nobles whose destiny it was to suffer more oppression under the revolutionary *regime*, than had been inflicted on *aspirants* of the plebeian order under the monarchy. He was born in 1768, was educated at the military school, and became a sub-lieutenant in the Breton regiment of infantry. When emigration grew to be as it were epidemic, he was proof against

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against the effect of exhortation, and the influence of example. He was a stranger to the excesses of the factious, and was even ignorant of the names by which they were designated; and wholly absorbed in his profession, his thoughts were occupied solely by military manœuvres, traits of heroism, and fields of battle. He first entered on service in 1792, at the age of twenty-four; and so intelligent and active did he shew himself, that he was successively aid-de-camp to Generals *de Broglie* and *Custine*. The services which were derived from his presence of mind and his counsels, on occasion of the reverses experienced at the lines of Weissenbourg, induced the national Commissaries to raise him to the rank of General of Brigade.

In spite of his merit, however, the Committee of Public Safety twice made an order for him to be deprived of his command, with which the General in chief constantly refused to comply. He was wholly ignorant of this fact till a third order arrived to the same effect, at the moment when he had gained the admiration of his comrades at the blockade of Landau; and the whole army opposed the unjust decree, which induced the commissary to disregard the command of the dread committee. A tender son, he begged with ardour the liberty of his mother; and a good citizen, he loved and respected his country even in the persons of those who overwhelmed it with their acts of injustice.

Dessaix commanded the left wing of the army in the memorable retreat of General *Moreau*, and had his full share in the dangers and laurels of that campaign. He returned to defend Keill for four months against the whole force of the Archduke; and under him the army effected the passage of the Rhine, in circumstances which rendered it as daring an achievement as was ever attempted.

After the treaty of *Campo Formio*, he followed *Bonaparte* into Egypt, and was by him presented with a short sword, superbly wrought, on which were inscribed the words, "*The taking of Malta, the battle of Chebrekeis, the battle of the Pyramids.*" He was charged to reduce Upper Egypt, whither the Mamelukes had retired; here he gained several victories; and he acquired a distinction more honourable than the triumph of arms, for the inhabitants gave him the title of the *Just Sultan*. Returning from Egypt, in consequence of the treaty of El Arisch, he was detained by Lord Keith, but was at length set at liberty. He then repaired to his native country; from which he again flew, with the utmost expedition, to join *Bonaparte*: accomplishing his object just in time to be present at the battle, the fate of which he turned, and in which he fell, esteemed by the French soldiers, honoured by the Austrians, and loved by all who knew him.

In

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In the affair of the heights of Neubourg, fell another hero who engaged attention, not less by his noble qualities than by the singularity which blended itself with them; we mean *la Tour-d'Auvergne-Corret*, great grandson (it has been said) of Marshal *Turenne*; who was born at Pontivy, and was author of the *Origines Gauloises*, besides many other works. Poor, but high spirited, and having declined a donation of land from the head of his family, he entered the army; in which he marched constantly on foot with a havresack on his back, having taken the place of a conscript, an only son, whom he caused to be sent home from the army of the Rhine as being necessary to the existence of a poor and aged father; and he served as a model of obedience and courage to the soldiers. *Bonaparte* sent him a brevet, appointing him first grenadier of the army; and *Moreau* duly honoured him in his military orders. Among other things, that General directed that a monument should be erected to him on the place on which he was slain, that it should be consecrated to courage and to the virtues, and be placed under the safeguard of the brave of all countries.

In commenting on the glowing representations made by some publicists in France, respecting the advantages gained by the treaty of Amiens, these authors throw out reflections which are replete with candor and good sense. The charge here made against the publicists comes home to the government; since the Consul himself, his ministers, and his journalists, were not less implicated than any of the pamphleteers in the senseless and impolitic conduct which is here so ably exposed. These boasts are represented as proceeding from indiscreet vanity, and from jealous and ambitious feelings, which can lead to no benefit, but which may occasion much mischief.

'Was it wise, (they ask,) to rouse hostile emulation in the English at the moment when conciliation was commencing? All the advantages of a peace consist in its duration. If the conditions are favourable to us, we should endeavour, by every means, to prevent their appearing onerous to the other party. We gain nothing, but we put every thing to risk, if we shew that our opponent has been duped. The first cannon ball brings to a fresh trial all the advantages secured by diplomacy and victory. To vaunt your advantages is to remind your rival of his losses, to mortify his pride, to rouse his spirit, and to make him jealous of those who have taken the advantage of him. But was not all this as unfounded as it was ill judged, while it remained an impossibility that a marine to be created in future could be a match for a most formidable navy already in existence? While the most glorious war is a horrible evil to all the world, would not true patriotism on the one side and the other have led to attempts to persuade the governments and the people, who had just entered into relations of amity, that the advantages of the peace of Amiens were so fairly balanced, as to leave to neither party a hurtful

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ful preponderance; and have induced them both to avoid giving umbrage, and honorably to fulfil engagements?

'Instead of enjoying the good which we acquired, we boasted of it, and magnified it; we violated the rules of sound policy, in order to confound bad reasoners or bad spirits who called in question the benefits of the peace. Instead of proving that it was good in itself, we strove to shew that it was good only in regard to us, and that it abounded with advantages by which we could make a bad use of it. These misplaced polemics are leading traits of the revolution. This is to study the interests of the English, and as it were to take up their cause. Statesmen of vigour and talents do not thus refute their detractors, but leave it to the growing prosperity of the state to justify their measures;—they are not eager to proclaim in the journals the regeneration of maritime rights, at the risk of compromising these rights in their very origin.'

We must farther remark that these authors, indulging a liberal strain lately become very rare among their countrymen, are willing that Britain should still remain the classical land of liberty, the metropolis of the commercial world, a model for grand combinations and immense energies growing out of an energetic public spirit: but France is to be the centre of taste, and Paris the capital of the polished world, the seat in which science is extended, and in which useful and agreeable arts, with the charms of society, regulated intercourse, and amiable manners, are eminently cultivated. We trust, however, that no such opprobrium will be chargeable on a country which was the cradle of science, and which has more than any other extended its boundaries, as it would deserve if it suffered itself to be excelled in the services which remain to be rendered to such a cause.

The authors consider the revolution as terminated by the *Senatus-consultum*, decreeing to *Bonaparte* the consulship for life.

The twentieth and concluding volume consists of an abridgement of the preceding nineteen, executed in a superior style. forms It is an admirable sketch of the Revolution. Fo.

ART. XIII. *Lettre sur l'Inscription Egyptienne*, &c.; *i. e.* A Letter on the Egyptian Inscription of Rosetta, addressed to M. *Silvestre de Sacy*, Professor of the Arabic Language in the School of the Living Languages of the East. By J. D. AKERBLAD. 8vo. pp. 70. Paris. Imported by De Boffe.

THE principle on which M. AKERBLAD proceeds, in attempting to recover the antient Egyptian alphabet, and to interpret the inscription on the stone of Rosetta, is that the Coptic language includes the remains of that of antient Egypt; and that, by an attentive study of the former, considerable light will be thrown on the latter. In analysing the characters on this stone, now in the British Museum, (and of which an exact copy has been

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been taken at the expence of the Society of Antiquaries, London,) he differs materially from his friend: but he expresses a desire of having his own opinion submitted to the severest scrutiny. In addition to the probability of his hypothesis, he has employed much patience and ingenuity in applying it to different parts of the Inscription; and if he has not succeeded in developing the whole of it, his remarks, as far as they reach, will not be undervalued by those who are desirous of understanding this curious vestige of antiquity:—a stone which, as containing the same decree engraven in the *sacred*, in the *common* Egyptian, and in the *Greek* characters, must assist more than any other circumstance to explain the Hieroglyphics.

After having proceeded in his attempt to ascertain the reading of many words in the Egyptian Inscription by the help of the Coptic tongue as his guide, the author endeavours to account for the limited success which has attended his exertions:

'Independently of the Egyptian words, which I have discovered in the various Coptic dialects, a great number will be found which bear no analogy to that language, though of their true reading I have little doubt. This ought not to surprize those who know how limited are the subjects on which the Coptic books now in our possession treat. They consist only of translations of the Bible, of liturgies, homilies, martyrologies, psalms, &c. the low and vulgar style of which must necessarily differ from the elevated language of a decree composed in the name of all the Hierarchy of Egypt, and designed to perpetuate the remembrance of the exploits and beneficence of one of her kings. Moreover, a multitude of Greek terms, adopted into the Coptic language, especially since the introduction of Christianity, have insensibly supplanted the Egyptian words, and caused them to be forgotten. The Copts, for instance, employ the Greek terms for *law*, *image*, &c. while the equivalent words in Coptic have disappeared from their language. These terms, and others equally unknown in the modern idiom, are to be seen in the Inscription; which, in its turn, admits expressions derived from the language of the court of the Ptolemies, which the Copts do not appear to have preserved in their's, but of which they express the sense by words belonging to their own vernacular tongue. If to these considerations are also subjoined the circumstances, that an interval of several ages elapsed between the engraving of the inscription and the most antient compositions in the Coptic language, and that during this period the language would necessarily vary, we shall not be much astonished at the difference observable between the idiom of the Inscription and that of the Copts.'

In the prosecution of his researches in this department of literature, the author informs us, he has laid the ground-work of a Thebaic Dictionary.

A letter in reply from M. *de Sacy* is added, in which he highly compliments M. AKERBLAD on the ingenuity of his analysis; though he takes the liberty of expressing a doubt respecting the accuracy of some particular parts.

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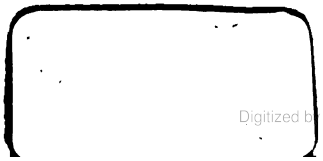

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